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Teacher Personnel

Reviews the literature for the three-year period since the issuance of
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FOREWORD

PROBLEMS of teacher personnel which at present confront the professional educator are urgent ones. While qualified elementary teachers are still exceedingly scarce, the shortage of secondary teachers is somewhat less severe. College administrators, scraping the bottom of the barrel to provide a staff for twice as many students as they have been accustomed to serving, are very properly beginning to clamor for serious attention to the preparation of college teachers.

Salary increases lag far behind living costs. More teachers organize; some strike in desperation. Merit-rating provisions, whereby outstanding teachers may receive appropriate remuneration, solve some problems and create others.

"Education for what is real" at home and abroad places new demands on education and requires new and more complex competencies of teachers. Preservice and inservice programs for the preparation of teachers at all levels are wrestling with these problems. As the job of teaching becomes more complex, what about the physical and mental health of the teachers.

This list of problems provides the framework for the research and the reports reviewed in this issue. The reviews will not prove to be as disheartening as is the list of problems. There are, in fact, many research studies that illuminate problems and point toward constructive consequences.

In certain of the areas, such as preparation of college teachers, teacher organization, and the mental and physical health of teachers, many of the studies can hardly be classified as research. Chapters on these topics are included here, however, because of the magnitude of the problems and the potency of the available studies for stimulating further much needed research.

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CHAPTER I

Supply and Demand in Teaching

EARL W. ANDERSON and REUBEN H. ELIASSEN

DURING the calendar years 1946, 1947, and 1948, over 200 published articles, editorials, or more extensive studies concerning supply and demand in education appeared in the literature. Investigations of national scope were made by the Commission on Teacher Education (2), the United States Office of Education (13, 14, 15), the National Education Association (1), and the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (33). In addition, an extensive study was made by Maul (28). Five regional studies were conducted (25, 26, 27, 31, 34) and a number of studies were based on statistics gathered within a given state (20, 21, 23, 42). A sampling of the national situation was made by Benjamin Fine (12) in a six-month travel survey.

The questionnaire method was used frequently, as was analysis of specific aspects of the problem. Factors considered in the studies were (a) the number of new teachers needed, (b) the number of teachers leaving and reentering the profession, (c) the number of students entering and graduating from teacher-education curriculums, (d) the number of certificates of various grades issued, (e) the number of vacancies unfilled, (f) the number of schools closed, and (g) the number of pupils without teachers. Current trends were also shown. Studies were made of attitudes toward teaching (44) and of reasons for the teacher shortage (9, 16). Some studies were concerned with supply and demand in specific areas: (a) elementary education (5, 16, 29, 41), (b) higher education (27, 31), (c) men teachers (22), and (d) mathematics teachers (40). Several estimates (5, 6, 33) were made of the need for new teachers during the next decade or longer. Recommendations occurred frequently.

The Current Situation

A critical shortage of teachers existed in all areas in 1946 and the situation was worse in 1947. In 1948 several of the high-school areas were well supplied, and there was even some surplus in English, social studies, and physical education for men (16, 33, 34). During these years the most severe shortage was in the rural schools. A marked undersupply existed also in the college field (27, 31). It was estimated that 125,000 emergency certificates were issued to teachers in the United States in 1946 and in 1947 (7, 8). The Subcommittee on Teacher Personnel of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (34) concluded that many state departments of education did not know what types and amounts of preparation lay back of thousands of emergency certificates in force.

Estimates of the number of teachers who had left the profession since 1939 ranged from 350,000 to 500,000 (11, 36).

Approximately 75,000 public-school teaching positions were unfilled in 1947 (11, 14, 43). Fine (11) estimated that during the same year 6000 schools, which normally served more than five million children, remained closed. Maul (25) stated that in 1948 the number of new elementary-school teachers qualified for regular certification was only 65 percent of the 1941 list; of high-school teachers, 112 percent; of physical-education teachers, 268 percent; and of home-economics teachers, 68 percent. In general, the shortage in the elementary-school teaching field was as bad in 1948 as it had been in 1947, whereas the supply of high-school teachers was almost adequate, an oversupply existing in some subject areas. College areas were markedly undersupplied (25, 28) due to the return of thousands of veterans to the college campus.

Causes of the Teacher Shortage

Low salaries constituted the foremost reason for the shortage of elementary-school teachers. The loss to the teaching profession attributed to this cause was estimated to be several hundred thousand teachers (13, 14, 36, 37). Another cause of the shortage was given by Browne (3), and Eliassen and Anderson (9) as being a lack of respect and appreciation for as well as prestige in the teaching profession. Eliassen and Anderson (9) also stated that in recent years almost all newly trained teachers have been prepared for rendering service in high-school, college, or administrative positions. The increasing birth rate of the war period added greatly to the need for additional elementary-school teachers (5, 6, 33). The reduced output of the colleges (14, 26, 34) and the great decrease in the percent of graduates of teacher-preparing curriculums who desired teaching positions (9, 38) were also considered to be factors contributing to the shortage. Other factors mentioned as being causes of the shortage were poor distribution of the supply (3, 11, 14, 23) and poor college teaching in teacher-education courses, which Purdom (38) blamed for the lack of interest in teaching as a profession. Threlkeld (44) found that only 6 percent of 2706 high-school pupils asked were interested in teaching, whereas 41 percent reported that under no circumstances would they go into teaching. Twenty-four percent of 1556 teachers reported to him that they would not reenter teaching if they were out of it. Reasons they gave included low salaries, single salary schedule, lack of general respect for teachers, and the overload of nonteaching assignments. Fifty-two percent of 1041 parents reported to Threlkeld that they favored teaching as a career for their children while 19 percent opposed it. Inability to get students to meet curriculum requirements was not listed, altho it must be a basic reason for dissatisfaction with elementary-school teaching as a profession.

Efforts To Solve the Problem of Teacher Shortage

The problem of the shortage of teachers was solved first in a stopgap fashion in all states by the use of emergency certificates for the persons who were available to teach but who were not certified for teaching. A strong effort was made to certificate these undertrained people on an emergency temporary basis only, so that they could not become permanent members of the profession unless their preparation came up to the normal requirements for full certification. Many colleges and many state teachers associations engaged in active recruitment programs for prospective teachers and for getting former teachers back into the classrooms. Articles in many popular magazines and radio appeals over the air pointed out the seriousness of the situation and stressed the need for better salaries and working conditions for teachers. Fine wrote a series of articles in the *New York Times* reporting in striking fashion the conditions he found in the schools he visited in various parts of the United States. These articles were later revised into a book (12) which had a definite influence upon public opinion regarding adequate staffing of the schools. Numerous conferences dealing with teacher supply and demand were held under the auspices of the National Education Association or state educational associations. Scholarships were provided for prospective elementary-school teachers, but these arrangements met with only lukewarm response in most states. A recent development was the setting up of special programs in many colleges to assist persons trained for teaching in high schools to qualify for teaching in the elementary schools.

Recommendations by Investigators

Better and more adequate salaries were most frequently recommended as the most obvious solution of the teacher-shortage problem (11, 14, 36, 39, 43). Other suggestions included (a) improving working conditions (7, 12, 37), (b) distributing the supply in a better manner (3, 11, 14, 23), (c) utilizing more systematic and intelligent recruitment practices (25, 26), (d) adopting higher professional standards (11, 37), (e) encouraging more men to become teachers (20, 22), (f) giving more publicity to the advantages of teaching and less publicity to the disadvantages (19), (g) establishing closer relationships between communities and their teachers (18), (h) encouraging more commendation of teaching and teachers by parents to their children (7), (i) developing better taught teacher-education courses in colleges (38), and (j) encouraging teachers to show more enthusiasm for their profession. Maul (28) suggested that more continuous long-range studies of teacher supply and demand should be conducted.

Fine (12) suggested the following expedients as means to alleviating the current unbalance between supply and demand: (a) federal aid to

education, (b) single salary schedules, (c) fewer extracurriculum and clerical duties, (d) smaller classes, (e) adequate equipment and supplies, (f) adequate tenure and retirement laws, (g) improved teacher-training programs, (h) teacher participation in policy making, (i) encouragement of superior students to enter teaching, and (j) more public interest in the nation's schools.

Predictions

Douglass estimated that the number of additional elementary-school teachers who will be needed because of the impact of the increasing birth-rate upon the schools will increase from 30,270 in 1948 to 70,590 for 1950, 110,730 for 1952, and 143,010 for 1955. He noted that the demand estimate for qualified teachers each year should be approximated by adding 125,000 (the number of teachers with substandard certificates) to each of these respective estimates. He predicted (5,6) that the need for teachers in secondary schools will be increased by 112,500 in 1960 and by that time there may be a reduction in the number of teachers needed in the elementary schools. Fine (12) estimated that less than half of the qualified new teachers needed by 1950 would be available.

Estimates made in 1948 by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (33) are as follows: During the ten years beginning in 1949-50 the number of new elementary-school teachers which will be needed will be 1,033,994. Of this number 262,100 will be needed to replace teachers who will quit teaching, 70,000 to replace teachers now on emergency certificates, and 142,460 to reduce the average class size in elementary schools to twenty-five pupils per teacher. The number of elementary-school positions will increase from 643,500 in 1947 to 921,000 in 1957-58, the peak year for elementary-school enrolment—an increase of 277,500 positions. Should the 1947-48 birth rate and the current rate of production of new teachers continue, an estimated shortage of 621,984 elementary-school teachers for new positions and for replacements alone would develop by 1958. The accumulated shortage would exceed 800,000 by 1958. The estimated annual demand for elementary-school teachers during the decade will be 103,399, which is about five times the present level.

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CHAPTER II

Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Success

ARVIL S. BARR

RESEARCH in the measurement and prediction of teaching success has been characterized by widespread interest during the three-year period covered by this review. Even a cursory examination of the research completed during this period reveals certain unmistakable trends: (a) there were many more systematic studies employing refined research technics than have appeared during earlier periods of research; (b) the subject was of interest to psychologists as well as to educators; (c) new aspects of the subject, such as personality, adjustment, and teacher-pupil relations, became centers of special concern; (d) interest continued in the selection of teachers and the prediction of teaching efficiency; and (e) the application of evaluative technics to merit pay schedules for teachers attracted considerable attention.

The relation of teacher personality and adjustment to teaching efficiency was a subject of special concern to several investigators. In one of these, Symonds (45) offered a summary of thirteen papers on teacher adjustment published by the author since 1941. Barker (4, 5) collected data relative to fourteen phases of adjustment; seven involved life adjustments and seven concerned work adjustments. The correlations between teaching efficiency and life adjustments varied from .08 to .35 and between efficiency and work adjustments from .36 to .58. Ash (3) discovered a significant relationship between teacher adjustment and pupil adjustment. Chalmers (15) found that highly intelligent correspondence teachers were more introverted than extroverted in their thinking. Witty (50) found from an analysis of approximately 12,000 letters from school children that democratic attitudes, kindliness, considerateness, patience, and wide interests were thought by the writers to be of great importance in effective teaching.

Extensive studies of teacher-pupil relationships were conducted by Anderson and Brewer (1, 2). They were particularly concerned with the teacher's dominative and socially integrative behavior in the classroom. Their data seem to indicate that certain behavior patterns and personality characteristics in the teacher persist from year to year and that the children's behavior tends to change as they are instructed in successive years by different teachers. They believed that their data had very definite implications for mental hygiene.

Cook and Leeds (16) were particularly concerned with the teacher's personality and its bearing upon teacher-pupil relationships. They found that the teacher's attitude toward pupils, and pupils' attitude toward teachers were significantly related ($r = .46$). They also found that pupils'

ratings of teachers correlated to the extent of .39 with principals' ratings and .33 with experts' ratings of teachers.

To select persons likely to become good teachers one must know the prerequisites to teaching success and the predictive values of different measures applied at different times and under different conditions. Stephens and Lichtenstein (42) studied the factors associated with success in teaching fifth-grade arithmetic. They were concerned with the relation of experience, maturity, normal-school marks, and performance to efficiency as measured by a professional test. Their results were generally negative. Marzolf (34) and Blum (11) compared different groups of professional workers to discover likenesses and differences among them. Marzolf found that business-education students were high in clerical and computational interests, elementary teachers were low in literary interests, and home-economics students were high in social-service interests as measured by the *Kuder Preference Record*. From an application of the *Minnesota Multiphasic Inventory* and the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*, Blum concluded that the differences were in their vocational and nonvocational interests rather than in personality traits. He thought, in view of the large differences among the several professional schools with respect to interests, that interest measurement should be a part of the selection procedure.

Espenschade (20) applied the *Bernreuter Inventory* and the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* to women physical-education majors. She also collected data on grades, probable success, and personality. She concluded that physical-education majors who continued in the course and obtained teaching credentials differed significantly from those who dropped out in grade-point average, probably success rating, and personal qualities.

Finger (21) thought that her study of social attitudes revealed "not only an insufficient awareness of social, economic, and political issues, but also confusion and inadequate knowledge."

Lins (30), Jones (25), and Von Haden (48) were concerned with the predictive value of a large number of measures used jointly. In his first study, based upon 204 university freshmen who indicated teaching as a first choice of occupation, Lins (30) secured correlations of .90 for women and .82 for men between freshman-sophomore grade-point averages and not being admitted to the School of Education. Percentile rank in high school proved to be the best single measure for predicting grade-point averages. In a second study, based upon fifty-eight cases, Lins found that rank in high-school graduating class, college grades, ratings in practice teaching, impressions gained from interviews, and various objective tests were valuable in predicting success in teaching as measured by various criteria.

Von Haden (48) studied the value of various sorts of personal data in the prediction of teaching efficiency. Personal data of the sort used in his investigation were found to have a high correlation with supervisory

ratings but were not closely correlated with teacher efficiency as measured by pupil gains or pupil ratings. Jones (25) limited his predictors to objective data. He secured a multiple r of .67 with supervisory ratings and .54 with pupil gain. He attributed his low correlation to an absence of subjective data and a less refined criterion. Bowers (14) secured correlations of .67 to .73 between test scores on an aptitude test for elementary teachers and grades in practice teaching. Menon (35) found no relationship between intelligence and the university examiner's estimate of teaching ability.

A variety of data-gathering devices are now available. A listing of devices most frequently used and data on their validity and reliability was made by Barr (6). Ryans (39) provided further data on the National Teachers Examinations.

Interest in the use of teacher-rating scales continued, particularly in relation to merit pay for teachers. There was considerable discussion of the subject but not very much research. The problems here were probably those of securing valid, reliable, and workable combinations of measurement and of ascertaining the effects of various systems of evaluation upon teacher morale and effectiveness.

Interest in student evaluation of teaching efficiency continued. While there were many papers on this subject, reference is made here to only two that pertained to the rating of faculty members by college students. Hoppock (24) obtained judgments regarding the usefulness of the course, interest experienced, and whether or not the listing of the same instructor to teach another course would be an added reason for taking that course. It appeared from his data that the best instructors received twice as many favorable votes as did the least effective one. Fowler (22), basing his statements on the responses to an eighteen-item teacher-rating form, concluded that students in general rated instructors higher than the instructors rated themselves. Students rated instructors highest in personal appearance and lowest in ability to provoke thought.

From a study of these several investigations the following conclusions would seem to be warranted: (a) The studies of the last three years appear to have grown in complexity and to have employed better controls, better measuring instruments, and better statistical procedures. (b) A large number of investigators attacked problems growing out of effects of teacher personality upon human relationship. (c) In the field of data-gathering devices, both so-called objective and carefully constructed subjective instruments have been used with profit. (d) The carefully controlled studies of this period showed a marked improvement in accuracy over less well-controlled studies. (e) As yet, no reports of the differential predictions of teaching efficiency have appeared in the literature.

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CHAPTER III

Recruitment, Institutional Selection, and Guidance of Teachers

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REPORTS of research during the period of this review show a preponderance of questionnaire studies often used to determine present practice. Much literature on recruitment of teachers was designed to induce young people to enter the profession. Only one attempt to discover most effective recruiting technics was found. Research dealing with selection of teaching prospects shows effort to develop better technics for prediction of college grades and teaching performance. There seems to be a trend toward more emphasis on personality, emotional stability, and vocational interest inventories in the prospective teacher-selection program.

Some studies revealed data on the quality of students now entering teacher-education institutions. Reports of research on guidance were meager. Efforts were largely confined to finding out what others were doing and to discovering problems of students in college.

Recruitment of Teacher-Education Prospects

A good summary of recruitment practices which have become nationwide in scope was furnished by Eliassen and Martin (10). They recommended widespread use of the following practices, which are presented in the order of frequency of mention in their survey: (a) improvement of psychological and social conditions surrounding the teacher, (b) raising teachers' salaries, (c) stressing the desirable aspects of teaching, (d) beginning the recruitment of desirable prospects in the high school, (e) supplementing pretraining selection by continuous selection and guidance of potential teachers, and (f) getting better teachers to urge better students to consider teaching as a possible professional choice. Brief summaries were also provided by Hull (16) and Kingsley (20).

In an effort to determine what printed materials were most effective in recruiting candidates for teaching, Trabue (37) reported the work done by the National Education Association committee on teacher education and recruitment in selecting twelve samples of printed material including four posters, three booklets, and five pamphlets or folders. High-school seniors in four states were shown displays of this material and were asked to rank the material on the basis of appeal. Median ratings were used to determine final ranks. Results of the investigation showed all posters were in the top half of ratings by both boys and girls and that statistically significant differences were found between boys and girls in the type of picture poster with greatest appeal, the girls getting greatest emotional

appeal from a poster including a picture of a baby. Results seemed to indicate that material depending on emotional appeal is better in the initial recruiting phase and that more detailed and factual material can be used after interest is aroused.

Hartford (15) collected information on reasons for entering teaching from 207 undergraduate students at the University of Kentucky over a period of two years. Responses from 103 men and 104 women indicated that chief reasons for planning to teach were "teaching is important work" and "interest in and liking for children." Jantzen (17) developed a checklist of sixteen statements or possible factors which might have influenced students to choose teaching as a profession. This checklist was used in two California colleges engaged in teacher education to secure responses from 145 college men, 103 college women, and 45 Phi Delta Kappa men. Four factors brought agreement in rank in all three groups and were reported in the following order from high to low: (a) interest in children and young people, (b) summer for study, travel, and relaxation, (c) reasonable assurance of adequate income, and (d) lifelong opportunity to learn.

Blum (6) found no clear-cut interests in teaching as such and indicated that the subjectmatter content seemed to be the main determinant of interest in the group of education students. However, his subjects were twenty-five students preparing for teaching at the secondary level. Other similar studies showed that for secondary-school teachers and prospective high-school teachers the interest in the major field of subjectmatter was a determining motive but that elementary-school teachers and prospective teachers of this level seemed most often to have been influenced by early experiences with children.

Similar evidence as to motives influencing persons to enter teaching was furnished in a questionnaire study of teachers entering and leaving the profession by the Missouri State Teachers Association (24). Both beginning teachers and those leaving the profession said they chose teaching because of the gratification derived from dealing with boys and girls and because of a genuine desire to be of service to society.

Thru the cooperation of sixty-five school systems in the suburban area of New York City, Threlkeld (36) secured replies on attitude-toward-teaching questionnaires from 2706 high-school seniors, 1556 teachers, and 1041 parents. Seniors whose attitudes were studied were selected from the upper half, scholastically, of their graduating classes. Six percent of these seniors planned to enter teaching and gave as their reasons the statements that teaching is interesting work and is a respected activity. Those not choosing teaching did not find any interest appeal. Twenty-four percent of responding teachers said they would not reenter teaching if they had their lives to live over. Teachers mentioned salaries as a reason altho seniors apparently did not avoid teaching for that reason. Fifty-two percent of the parents questioned said they would be pleased to have their

children enter teaching, and a large majority expressed great respect for the profession.

Lane (21) analyzed 234 application blanks for admission to a training college for the deaf to discover motives which influenced prospective teachers. Most frequent reasons given for wanting to enter training for teaching were "residence near a school for the deaf," "visited classes in school for the deaf," "friends and/or relations who are deaf."

Studies of motives for entering teaching which were reported during the three-year period of 1945-1948 confirmed the summaries given in the 1946 edition of the REVIEW. It would therefore seem proper, in accordance with the report made by DeLaHunt and Gill (9), to experiment extensively with a program of giving promising high-school seniors opportunities to work with young children, especially in view of the fact that the greatest need for teachers is in the elementary-school grades.

In a questionnaire study of 33,000 high-school seniors in Pennsylvania (25), an attempt was made to discover efforts made in high schools to interest graduates in teaching as a career. Of this group of seniors 4.4 percent indicated that they expected to enter teaching. The preponderance of evidence seemed to indicate that school counselors regularly or occasionally talked with promising students about teaching and that teachers occasionally talked with them about the profession. Service clubs of those interested in teaching were seldom operating and only a small number of schools followed a regular practice of using older students as teacher assistants. High-school officials who said that college representatives came regularly to recruit prospective teachers were about equal in number to those who said such representatives came only occasionally. According to reports of high-school officials, invitations to visit college campuses were commonly extended to seniors.

The use of scholarships as inducements to enter teaching was reported by Wright (42) and Archer (2). Archer analyzed state practices in providing funds for selected high-school graduates entering teaching. He found nine states using special scholarship appropriations and reported conditions under which awards were made and methods used in selecting prospects. He also reported practices in certain states of using funds already appropriated to state institutions for scholarship inducements to prospective teachers.

Few universities made effective use of available methods and technics of recruitment according to Stiles' report (32) on seventy-seven institutions. In fact, while a few distributed information, extensive recruitment programs did not seem to be in evidence.

Selection of Candidates for Teacher Education

There seemed to be a growing interest in the selection of candidates for teacher education, altho according to Stiles (32) only a few universities reported that they used highly developed experimental selection proce-

dures. In another study Stiles (31) secured ninety-three returns of a teachers-education-program checklist submitted to 104 universities. Eighty-three percent of the answering authorities favored selection of students for teacher education, altho 57 percent reported that they admitted all students who made application for entrance and 42 percent reported that they admitted only selected students to teacher-education programs. In another article (32) Stiles gave the low validity of selection technics as one reason for failure to develop this phase of their program.

In an attempt to set up criteria for the selection of students for internships in teaching, Bishop (4) secured the cooperation both of fifty-nine teacher-education institutions and thirty-six specialists in teacher education who acted as a jury. Jurors and persons in institutions were asked to indicate desirable criteria for student selection. Sixty percent of the jurors and an equal percent of institutions favored some plan of selection. The following named factors were ranked highest by both groups for use in selection: (a) desirable personal attitude toward teaching, (b) freedom from emotional defects, (c) average undergraduate scholastic record, (d) a fund of general knowledge, (e) freedom from speech or other defects, (f) satisfactory skills in English, spelling, handwriting, and arithmetic, and (g) high grades or records in subjects to be taught.

Gould (12) used 113 subjects who had completed teacher education and one year of inservice teaching by June 1946 to determine the predictive value of certain measures for success in teaching as measured by ratings of principals. He computed coefficients of contingency to determine relationships and found relationships between success in teaching and various factors as follows: student-teaching grade, .66; rating in personal interview, .64; *American Council on Education Psychological Examination*, .53; quality-point average, .44; *Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test*, .38; *Bell Adjustment Inventory*, .37; *Washburne Social Adjustment Inventory*, .35; and *Willoughby Personality Schedule*, .23. Using raw data he computed percent of students who received average or higher ratings on teaching and also received high ratings on certain measures and reported as follows: student teaching, 90.3; personal interview, 90.3; *Bell Adjustment Inventory*, 84; *Willoughby Personality Schedule*, 84; *Washburne Social Adjustment Inventory*, 83; quality-point average, 61; *Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test*, 51; and *American Council on Education Psychology Examination*, 46.

Thomann (35) reported relatively high correlations between high-school and college editions of the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination* as predictive measures. Results of administration of the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination*, the *Cooperative English Examination*, and the *Use of Library and Study Materials Test* by Kirkpatrick and others to college freshmen classes of 1941 and 1945 was reported by Votaw (39). Test scores were converted to T-scores, and grade-point averages for each student were computed. Zero order

correlations with grade-point averages were reported as follows: American Council on Education scores, .53; English scores, .52; and library scores, .56. Other research showed that scores on English tests have high predictive value for grades in English and social studies but low predictive value for grades in mathematics and sciences. Votaw (39) also reported a correlation of .61 between grade-point averages on three combined-measure scores.

Bowers (8) reported validity coefficients of correlation for the *Bowers Aptitude Test for Elementary School Teachers*. Correlation coefficients of predicted percentiles of the test with percentiles on student teaching were given as $.72 \pm .05$ and $.62 \pm .06$. Ninety cases were used for each study.

Leeds and Cook (22) gave a description of a new scale for measuring teacher-pupil attitude of value for guidance and selection. Responses of 100 superior and 100 inferior teachers to 378 items were secured. Validity coefficients for correlations of the scale with the following were reported: author rating of teacher, .49; rating by teacher's principal, .43; ratings of the teacher by from twenty to forty pupils, .45; and combined ratings, .59.

Studies reported during the past three years give additional evidence to indicate the desirability of having some technic for determining the emotional maturity of the candidate for teacher education (3, 5, 6, 34). Blair (5) administered the *Multiple Choice Rorschach Test* to 205 experienced teachers and 152 prospective teachers. Experienced teachers made maladjustment scores significantly higher than did the prospective teachers.

Blum's study (6) suggested the desirability of further experimentation with vocational interest inventories. Twenty-five students each were selected from the colleges of education, law, medicine, engineering, and journalism. He used a questionnaire, the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory*, and the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*. The greatest differences in the five groups of students were in their vocational and non-vocational interest tendencies.

In institutions where selection of candidates was being practiced frequent use was being made of some measure of mental ability and of scholastic success in the form of high-school percentile rank, honor-point ratio in college, or scholarship average (1, 7, 10). Fuller (11) found no significant relationship between high-school academic averages and rank order in student teaching. She did secure a positive Pearson r of .62 between honor-point ratios for grades in university professional courses and rank order in student teaching. Haas (13) reported coefficients of correlations between high-school percentile rank and college grade points of .63 and .57 for two separate classes of college students.

Some reports indicated the quality of students selected for teacher education. In the study made by the Missouri State Teachers Association (24), 53 percent of high-school seniors who chose to enter teaching were

superior in ability as judged by high-school percentile rank, 32 percent were average in ability, and 15 percent were of inferior quality.

Studies by Traxler (38), Welborn (41), and Martin (23) dealt with comparisons of ability of teachers, college students, and students of four-year colleges, comparisons being made on basis of scores on the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination*. All reported average raw scores of the total teachers-college freshman population as significantly lower than for the freshman population of four-year colleges. Differences, however, were small and their distributions showed a great overlapping. Over half of the teachers-college freshman students surpassed approximately two-fifths of the four-year college freshmen (38). Martin (23) gave data to show that New Jersey State Teachers College freshmen had higher average scores than four-year college freshmen in all but three years of a ten-year period. Blum (6) presented evidence to show that his sample of college of education students was not inferior in personality development to samples of four other vocational groups of students.

In an analysis of the results of the Eighth Annual Teacher Examination Program of the American Council on Education, Ryans (28) found elementary-education students now completing their education to be superior with regard to knowledge and ability when compared with experienced elementary teachers. He did not conclude that the existence of this situation was evidence of improvement in quality since other factors may have lowered the average scores of the experienced group. He also reported that the records for an eight-year period showed some tendency for samples of teachers to deteriorate during the war years, and that the 1947 results indicated a possible recovery with the rise in average scores.

Summaries of research dealing with selection of candidates for teacher education were furnished by Eliassen and Martin (10), Archer (1), Bobbitt (7), and Smith (29). These contributions indicated a trend toward more emphasis on "personality evaluation" and "liking for children," as compared with mere emphasis on intelligence and scholarship. Archer (1) concluded that a composite of several measures would likely have higher predictive value of teaching success than would any single measure. The validation of selective technics is handicapped by inconclusive evidence regarding prediction and measurement of teaching success.

Guidance

Marked increase in interest of teacher-education officials in the guidance program for college students is evident from the literature surveyed.

Kamm and Wrenn (19) furnished results of a questionnaire study of 155 universities and colleges. Nearly all institutions planned some kind of orientation program for prospective teacher-education students. Approximately three-fourths of the institutions planned orientation work for other

quarters of the school year. Nearly all colleges reported that faculty counselors would be used. Seventy-three percent of public universities, 73 percent of private universities, and 54 percent of colleges employed a number of professional counselors who spent one-half, or more, of their time counseling students, setting up records, and collecting data for counseling purposes.

Prator (27) and Jones (18) made questionnaire studies of admissions practices and the personnel program. Wright and Darley (43) reviewed research dealing with aspects of guidance and counseling and indicated the need of counselors for more research and knowledge dealing with occupational and employment trends, psychometrics, a humanistic educational philosophy, personality, and prediction of educational and vocational success.

To determine what tests were being used in the college orientation program, Painter and Painter (26) sent a checklist questionnaire to fifty accredited colleges maintaining at least a four-year curriculum. The institutions questioned covered a wide range in size, geographical location, and type (state, private, and denominational). Forty-two institutions responded with information concerning names of tests used, persons administering the tests, and methods of scoring. All institutions reporting gave some type of general college aptitude test. Seventy-six percent of the colleges used the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination*. Thirty-eight percent of the colleges gave some general English test although there was no uniformity of practice in choice of the test used. Sixty-nine percent of the colleges gave a test of English usage; 55 percent, some test of reading ability; 62 percent, some mathematical test; 43 percent, some science test; 38 percent, some social-studies test; 14 percent, some foreign-language test; 14 percent, some personality inventory; and 19 percent, some vocational-interest test. Ninety-three percent of the schools reporting gave supplementary tests as interest and special need demanded. Tests were given by a test director or an individual assuming that capacity in 42 percent of the colleges and by some members of the education or psychology staffs in 28 percent of schools. Median number of tests given was four. Some schools had reduced the number of tests previously given while others had increased the number. Only 43 percent of the schools expressed satisfaction with the program.

In a study by Hollister reported in summaries by Archer (1), 693 teachers-college students in five colleges reported advisory assistance provided by institutions. Twenty-six percent of the students were advised by special counselors, 25 percent were advised by the dean, 24 percent had some staff member as adviser, and 17 percent had no adviser. Problems most frequently discussed with advisers were college marks, kind and number of courses needed, extracurriculum activities, study habits, and personal finance. Students wanted help but did not get it on strength and weaknesses as they affect vocational choices, personality traits, sala-

ries and professional advancement in occupation, and general feelings of inadequacy. Harris (14) and Spears (30) reported studies of student concern over problems of the teaching profession which they proposed to enter.

Stright (33) reported tetrachoric correlation coefficients of scholarship or grade index, scores on the *Cooperative General Culture Test*, and scores on a comprehensive English test with participation in various campus activities by college men or women students as obtained by means of a questionnaire. Coefficients were based on seventy to one hundred cases. He found slight negative relationship between fraternity memberships and all criteria but a decidedly significant correlation of .63 for sorority membership and grade index. However, the sorority grade requirements for membership would make this possible. He reported significant positive relationships between membership of men in campus organizations and the criteria of success in college, the highest being with general culture, tetrachoric r being .43. He reported a low positive relationship between extracurriculum activities and other criteria for men but significantly higher relationship in this respect for women. For women students part-time employment showed positive relationship with all three criteria. Men students were largely naval personnel. Time spent in preparation for classwork showed negative relationship with the criteria. Better students spent less time preparing for classwork.

Mortality-survival studies threw some light on problems of student adjustment in college. In the Landskov study reported in the Archer summary (1), data were presented showing that of 1547 students who entered college 32 percent dropped out of school, 8 percent transferred to other colleges, and 61 percent graduated from the college of education. Ten percent of the students who dropped out were not academic failures altho the study showed that student survival was closely associated with the quality of academic marks. Haas (13) furnished evidence for freshman classes of one teachers college. For one class whose members might have completed their work before World War II started, 57 percent dropped out of college after not more than two full years of college work. His data showed that only 8 percent of the students who dropped out were doing *B* work, while 68 percent were doing below *C* work. High-school percentile ranks and intelligence-test scores had predicted these failures according to his data.

Another mortality-survival study was published by Weintraub and Salley (40). Of 1064 freshmen admitted to Hunter College, 535 received a bachelors degree, 71 were still in school after four years, 46 transferred to other colleges, and 412 withdrew, the mortality being 39 percent. Poor scholarship was the main cause for 45 percent of the drop-outs. The second most important cause for leaving college was financial and accounted for 12 percent of those who left. Over half left before completing the sophomore year, which fact is in substantial agreement with

records of other institutions. They reported figures to show greater predictive value for the Regents examination than for the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination*. Percents of withdrawals because of poor scholarship from the upper half of the Regent grades was 7 percent while 61 percent finished college. Fourteen percent of the students who scored in the upper half of the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination* withdrew because of poor scholarship and 56 percent graduated. They conclude that no single criterion can be relied upon to predict college achievement. Factors other than high scores influence college persistence.

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CHAPTER IV

Preservice Preparation of Teachers

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THE THREE-YEAR period covered by this review was made particularly noteworthy by the appearance of several reports of large-scale investigations concerned with the preservice preparation of teachers. A highly significant study of professional laboratory experiences was reported by the American Association of Teachers Colleges (4). The Commission on Teacher Education issued two volumes (5, 61), one being its final report. A report of a comprehensive survey of general education for elementary teachers (50) was published, and the reports of the Commission on General Education of the American Council on Education (22) were made available. The President's Commission on Higher Education (71), altho reporting little of the evidence upon which conclusions were based, made challenging recommendations for the improvement of college-teacher preparation. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education continued its useful series of yearbooks (1, 2, 3).

Investigations by individuals were relatively few and were primarily studies of status. A few notable experimental or evaluative studies did appear, however (9, 15, 25, 27, 48, 49, 53, 75), and will be reviewed later.

Methods of Investigation

In the June 1946 issue of the REVIEW, Peik classified fifteen methods of investigation. Studies reviewed in this chapter fall within the classifications therein enumerated.

Two pronounced trends in recent investigative procedures may be noted. First, the trend toward cooperative, organization-sponsored studies of wide scope, with results being reported (a) as anecdotal descriptions of processes and practices and (b) as analyses of records of experience made by trained observers. Such studies typically focus upon bringing about change in practice concurrently with inquiry into the subject under investigation. The second trend is the increasing employment of a sequential process that consists of (a) establishing criteria for a practice or procedure thru composite judgments of authorities or practitioners, (b) employing the criteria to analyze a given program, (c) securing evidence and opinion as to the attainment of each criterion in a particular situation, and (d) compiling a composite, illustrated summary of current attainment.

Professional Laboratory Experiences

Major investigative attention of an outstanding nature was directed toward professional laboratory experiences in preservice preparation. Unusually useful was the report (2) of an exhaustive development study which covered a three-year period and involved 190 colleges and universities. Conducted by a joint committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the National Association for Student Teaching, the study first established by the conference-and-jury technic nine principles governing professional and laboratory experiences. The principles espoused were then employed as guides in an investigation of current practices and of opinion regarding desirable practices by using questionnaires, personal visitations, and group interviews. The report of the study presented a wealth of illustrative practices that implement in varying degrees the established principles and contained recommendations of the committee for future lines of development.

Current practices and authoritative opinion were also reported by several individual investigators. Organization and administration of student teaching received most attention (16, 18, 19, 31, 33, 65). Campus school facilities and utilization (19,37) and programs for internship (11, 12, 13) were covered. Significant findings reported were in close agreement with those of the study described in the preceding paragraph and may be summarized as follows:

- ✓ 1. Authorities favor the development of laboratory experiences as an integral part of the entire college course of four or five years, closely correlated with the other work of the student. In practice, a steady trend in this direction is evident, but the typical procedure continues to be that of restricting direct experience to the period of student teaching. Students of elementary education receive two to three times as much laboratory experience as do students of secondary education. Most laboratory experience is with schools, a significant amount is with children, but only a few colleges and universities provide for experience with communities.

2. A noticeable trend toward expanding the time allotment for student teaching exists. Opinion favors a minimum period of eight weeks spent in full-time school and community service. Students in elementary-education curriculums typically devote one-half day for a semester or a quarter to student teaching; those in secondary education, two hours daily for a half-semester. Most students take student teaching at the same point in their preparatory experience, typically the first semester of the senior year, tho some trend toward increased individualization of sequence is evident and is recommended.

3. Public schools furnish most student-teaching posts, with the supervising teacher being the key counselor of the student. College supervision of student teachers is closer in teachers colleges than in universities.

Campus schools afford most of the existing opportunities for direct experience before and after student teaching. Internship, as a supervised portion of postgraduate education for teachers, is relatively rare.

The Curriculum

Organization. Doane (24) reported that four out of five colleges and universities were providing instruction in general academic subjects for prospective high-school teachers. Stiles (66) found that universities, which were educating prospective high-school teachers, typically required curriculums including a subjectmatter major and minor plus twelve to twenty-eight semester hours in education, and that the education courses were more likely to be discrete than to be fused. McConnell (51) and Stiles (66) reported that all-college or all-university planning groups for teacher education were rare. Grommon (34) found that the subjectmatter provided for prospective teachers of high-school English was little different from that provided for academic majors in English.

According to Lovinger (50) general education requirements continued to be concentrated in the freshman and sophomore years, with the typical student devoting from one-fourth to one-third of his credit time in four years to general education subjects. The Flowers report (4) stated that professional work was typically concentrated in the junior and senior years, with one or two courses in education being offered in the first two college years. Authoritative recommendation from the Commission on Teacher Education (5) favored greater spread of both general education and professional education.

Content. According to the report of the Cooperative Study in General Education (22), the objectives of general education had become generally agreed upon, but the proper organization of experiences was still a matter of controversy. The real problem, however, was said to be that of how to get desirable changes made in the college curriculum. Evidence seemed to favor the procedure of enlisting faculty groups in narrow, concrete projects concerned with only one aspect of general education. Lovinger (50) indicated that administrators of teachers colleges reported moderate faculty interest in most objectives of general education, and that 80 percent believed that their colleges were partially successful in attaining certain stated general education objectives tho less than 10 percent rated their general education programs as being very successful.

Baker (7) stated that preparation to handle intergroup relations was relatively meager in teachers-college curriculums but was receiving increased attention. Cook (20) and Lawrence and Gaver (47) reported that there was some evidence that intergroup attitudes of students can be affected by teaching procedures. Baruch (9) showed that group and individual teaching-counseling procedures can move students toward psychological and emotional acceptance of children. Gillen (30), Havighurst

(38), and Wolcott (74) indicated that present curriculums offer small opportunities for prospective teachers to develop community understanding or to develop ability in solving community problems.

The Flowers report (4) and Doane (24) stated that student-teaching was an almost universal requirement in professional curriculums, and that educational psychology and child psychology were required in 90 percent of them, that introduction to education was required by less than one-half of the institutions reporting, and that history of education had dropped to eighth place in frequency of requirement. Investigations of current status or expressed needs in several subject fields revealed no marked changes in rural-school management (42, 62), speech (48), physical education (10, 63), or educational sociology (39, 40). Blair (14) pointed out some shift toward child-development emphases in educational psychology. McConnell (51) reported that teachers colleges made increased utilization of audio-visual aids to learning but that general instruction in use of visual aids occurred in only 50 percent of the institutions.

Barr's penetrating summary of investigations (8) revealed little evidence that characteristics of good teachers can be defined empirically, but more evidence that change can be measured. Witty's evaluation of studies of the characteristics of the effective teacher (73) was somewhat more sanguine. Edmiston (25, 26, 27) furnished a valuable and suggestive account of an attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of an experimental curriculum at Milwaukee State Teachers College, but otherwise the crucial matter of evaluation received scant attention from investigators.

Other Investigations

The Teachers College. Lovinger (50) reported that in 1947, 57 percent of teachers colleges were classified by their administrators as multipurpose regional colleges. By geographical regions the percents were: Eastern, 14; Southern, 71; North Central, 72; and Western, 92. In addition, 21 percent of the administrators of nonmultipurpose institutions thought great likelihood existed that their colleges would become multipurpose, and 11 percent thought that there was moderate likelihood of this development's occurring.

Students. Studies by Traxler (70) and Welborn (72) compared college aptitude-test scores of teachers-college freshmen and other college freshmen over a nine-year span and concluded that the teachers-college freshmen consistently had significantly lower scores than the freshmen in four-year colleges but that the differences in averages were relatively small in absolute terms and that the scores overlapped consistently. Blum (15) and Lillywhite (48) found that university students choosing education differed from those choosing other professions in interests but not in personal, physical, or environmental factors. Fine (28) reported that college deans thought that students regard teaching as a poorer vocational choice than

other professions. Story (67) found that enrolments in teachers colleges in the fall of 1948 showed an increase of 5 percent over the preceding year—the largest percent of increase reported for any type of institution at that time.

Preparation of College Teachers. Attention was again focused on this problem by the President's Commission on Higher Education (71) which relied largely upon the research data previously reported by Hollis (44). The Cooperative Bureau for Teachers (21) reported that some graduate schools had introduced modifications of advanced degree programs designed to provide for better preparation of college teachers but that such changes typically reached only a few doctoral candidates. Some pertinent material was furnished by Hollis' analysis (43) of requirements for the degrees of Ed. D. and Ph. D. in education and by Woody's report (76) of the analysis.

Strategy in Changing Curriculums. Several reports addressed themselves to analyzing the effectiveness of procedures employed in attempting to evolve improved curriculums for teacher education. Use of central stimulative bodies, intervisitation, evaluation of student's performances, study of a student, construction of a measuring instrument, formulation of recommendations to the college administration, and particularly the use of the "crisis" technic were judged by the Cooperative Study (22), the Commission on Teacher Education (20), Lovinger (50), and Prall (61) to be valuable.

State Surveys. State teachers colleges were typically found to be regional general purpose colleges, often tending to neglect their major function of teacher education. Lack of adequate selection procedures was criticized and separation of colleges from close liaison with public schools was questioned. Student-teaching agreements were deemed inadequate and financial support for teacher education was considered too meager. Statewide planning bodies for teacher education were urged. It was recommended by various survey staffs (28, 45, 50, 56, 64, 71) (a) that most teachers colleges should be allowed to do graduate work, (b) that professional education in private colleges needed strengthening, and (c) that preparation for elementary education and for secondary education should not be separately allocated to colleges.

Bibliographies and Reviews. The annual selected and annotated lists of references compiled by Gray (32) continued to be unusually valuable. Bibliographies on student teaching were prepared by the National Association for Student Teaching (55) and Stratemeyer and others (68). Unfortunately, the partial listing of theses and dissertations compiled by the staff of *Higher Education* was the only one which was made available during the period covered by this review. The American Library Association (6), Corey (23), Hample, Dale, and Quick (35), and Noel and Leonard (58) compiled annotated lists of suitable films and other audiovisual materials for teacher education.

Brickman (17) devoted one of his unique and interesting reviews of educational literature to teacher education in which he covered forty books appearing between 1944 and 1947. Horrocks (45) reviewed issues and trends in the secondary teacher-education curriculum as revealed in literature and Perdue (60) analyzed the statements made in professional literature during the last seventy years regarding history of education as a subject of study. The outstanding review of the period was, of course, the *Final Report* of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education (5).

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CHAPTER V

Local Selection, Placement, and Administrative Relations

DAVID G. RYANS*

THE AMOUNT of research dealing with matters covered by this chapter heading has been regrettably limited during the period of this review. True, a number of related articles appear annually in educational journals, but the majority of these may be characterized as expressions of opinion regarding objectives and/or practices. Research reports and descriptions of technics or procedures reported in the literature are relatively few. It is important to take cognizance of this apparent neglect. Reliable and valid procedures leading to the identification of good teachers and contributing to their selection and guidance must be developed and validated if the obligations of the schools are to be fulfilled. Research workers must provide these necessary technics.

I. Local Selection of Teachers

Local selection here includes the selection of personnel for original appointment in a school system, selection for promotion, and selection for administrative positions. It includes consideration of teacher qualities taken into account by administrators and of various teacher-selection procedures.

Teacher Qualities Considered in Selection

A variety of qualities have been considered significant for teacher selection on the assumption that they reflect basic teacher behavior. Eliassen and Martin (12) recently noted a number of desirable teacher qualities that had been mentioned in the literature on the subject. Barr and others (2) presented an extensive summary of investigations having to do with the relationship of various teacher qualities to teaching efficiency. Crow (9) reported the inauguration of a statewide teacher-certification program in South Carolina which sought to take into account four general areas of teacher qualities: (a) amount and kind of education, (b) length and quality of experience, (c) personal and professional qualifications, and (d) intellectual and cultural background. A report published under the title *Handbook of Suggestions for Administering the New York State Teachers Salary Law of 1947* (36) reviewed a number of considerations

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believed to be important in determining whether or not a teacher had rendered exceptional service to a school system. Ryans (43, 52) listed ten selected areas of teacher qualities which had been mentioned in the literature.

Basing his conclusion upon an analysis of pupils' descriptions of their favorite teachers, Witty (62, 63) stated that positive (desirable) teacher qualities included possession of a cooperative attitude, kindness, patience, and the like and that negative traits of teachers included bad temper and intolerance, unfairness and favoritism, lack of interest in pupils, unreasonableness in demands, and so forth. Rath (37) suggested categories of teacher qualities which differed somewhat from those traditionally mentioned: clarifying operations, security-giving operations, show-how operations, cultural-unifying operations, community-enriching operations, and operations based on cause-and-effect approach to learning.

The report of the President's Commission on Higher Education (60) suggested that the following qualities should be considered in the selection of faculty members: (a) sound scholarship, (b) professional competence, (c) a clear concept of the role of higher education in society, (d) broad humanistic understanding, (e) lively curiosity, (f) a sincere interest in research, (g) insight into motivation, and (h) a sympathetic, intelligent understanding of young people. Chapin (7) reported nine categories of faculty attainment studied at the University of Minnesota: publications, editorial positions held, listing in *American Men of Science*, listing in various *Who's Who* publications, fellowships held, miscellaneous citations of recognition, honorary degrees received, and doctorate received from an accredited university.

Sources of Information about Teacher Qualities

There are four primary sources of information regarding teacher qualities. Two of these, interviews and records, are employed quite frequently. A third source of information includes examinations, tests, and inventories and is used in most large cities tho it is accorded relatively little attention in small communities. Classroom observation, a fourth major source of information, is very seldom considered.

Ryans (45) listed a number of teacher qualities and noted the source of information that seemed applicable in each instance. Landry (28) also discussed various sources of information about teacher characteristics. *The Handbook of Suggestions for Administering the New York State Teachers Salary Law of 1947* (36) suggested the following sources of evidence of exceptional service: (a) rating devices, (b) supervisory reports and classroom observation, (c) *National Teacher Examination* results, (d) pupil achievement records, (e) anecdotal records of teacher achievement, and (f) cumulative teacher records. Heaton (25) reviewed the use of four sources of information about teachers: (a) biographical

inventory blanks, (b) oral examinations, (c) standardized interviews, and (d) reference schedules.

The improvement of the teacher-selection interview, the place of examination in teacher selection, and the validity of examinations in teacher selection were considered by Ryans (42, 44, 46). He pointed out that in light of the relative unreliability of available criteria of teaching success plus the fact that examinations are intended to measure only one aspect of teaching ability, obtained correlation coefficients of .4 and .5 between test results and estimates of teaching success are satisfactorily high. Emens (13) expressed the fear that teacher examinations would be misused and objected particularly to the use of the *National Teacher Examinations* for the elimination of candidates for teaching positions in city school systems.

The Research Division of the National Education Association (34) reported the response of teachers to the question, "Should written examinations be used in the selection of teachers?" Men favored the use of examinations more than women. Women secondary teachers favored their use more than women elementary teachers. From 56 percent to 71 percent of the teachers in cities where written examinations were used said that written examinations should be used; in communities where written examinations were not used, from 22 to 41 percent believed examinations should be a factor in selection.

Cook and Leeds (8, 29) described an inventory that reflected teacher-pupil attitudes. This inventory was developed by studying the responses of defined criterion groups of teachers to a large number of opinion-type items. Harrington (24) reported a detailed study of the relation between estimated quality of written recommendations and the success of teachers in securing positions.

Technics for Teacher Selection

Ryans (43) described a number of technics for collecting information about teacher qualities and recommended the use of qualifications profiles in comparing teachers. Landry (28) and the New York Advisory Committee on Teacher Salaries (36) both gave careful consideration to various technics that may be used to facilitate the making of judgments about teacher qualifications.

Symonds (55, 56), Blair (5), Seagoe (53), Dodge (10), Cook and Leeds (8, 29), Ryans (50), Guilford and Comrey (22), and Goodenough and others (19) reported results bearing on the relation of personal qualities to teaching and administrative success. Such studies are reviewed by Symonds in another chapter of this issue.

Long (31) has emphasized the need for objectivity on the part of examiners and interviewers in applying the technics of teacher selection. Ryans

(48) suggested certain simplified statistical procedures which may assist in objectifying the teacher-selection progress.

Teacher Selection in Practice

Reavis and Cooper (38) reviewed in some detail the procedures followed in city school systems in the evaluation of teacher merit. Green and Richter (21) described the operation of a program of teacher evaluation and selection in the Newton, Massachusetts, school system. This program includes the review of transcripts and references, an interview, and the observation of teachers in the classroom. The Providence public schools have developed a relatively complete program of teacher selection over a period of some fifteen years. This program was described in some detail by Towne (57).

Selecting Teachers for Promotion

The selection of teachers for promotion caused considerable comment during the period covered by this review. Much controversy has grown out of the New York State Teachers Salary Law of 1947, which provides for promotional salary increments in the upper brackets for teachers whose services are judged to be exceptional. The New York State program was described by Morrison (33), and suggestions for the careful and objective implementation of the law were outlined by a committee made up of New York State schoolmen (36).

Hamstra (23) pointed out that teacher merit rating of one sort or another is inevitable and suggested that programs involving cooperative planning be carefully worked out. Rath (37) suggested the following potential dangers in the appraisal of teacher efficiency on the job: (a) restraint on teaching, (b) misunderstanding of the motives by teachers, (c) the setting-up of unattainable standards, and (d) the invalidity of snap judgments.

In its study of opinions of teachers towards personnel administration in the schools, the Research Division of the National Education Association (34) noted that a majority of the teachers responding expressed the belief that all teachers should be rated each year. Only about 10 percent of the teachers indicated the belief that no ratings should be given. In general, secondary teachers were somewhat more favorable to ratings than elementary teachers and rural teachers were more favorable than urban teachers. In the same *Research Bulletin* (34) it was noted that approximately two-thirds of the teachers responding favored making no difference in salary of teachers during the early years of service, but approved providing advanced salary classes to which superior teachers might be promoted.

Studies of Factors Considered in Teacher Selection

Several researches were reported which investigated the qualities contributing to teaching success or studied interrelationships of various factors frequently considered in teacher selection. In addition to Barr and others (2), who summarized a number of researches on the measurement and prediction of teaching efficiency, Durflinger (11) reviewed several studies of the prediction of teaching success; and Gould (20), Jones (26), Lins (30), Brookover (6), and Seagoe (53) reported the results of various tests and inventories in relation to teaching success as judged by available criteria (ratings and pupil gain).

The several annual reports of the National Committee on Teacher Examinations of the American Council on Education (41, 47, 49, 50) noted relationships between the intellectual, cultural, and professional information backgrounds of teaching candidates and such variables as length of regular teaching experience, educational level (highest degree earned), teaching level (elementary or secondary), sex, and type of position named as teaching preference.

II. Placement

Berry (4) described in some detail the services provided and procedures employed by the Office of Teacher Placement at the University of California at Los Angeles. As a service of the U. S. Office of Education, Frazier (15, 16) provided lists of leading teacher-placement bureaus and described the services offered. Archer (1) recently discussed teacher placement as the responsibility of the teacher-education institutions and emphasized the need for follow-up procedures in placement offices.

A bulletin of the U. S. Office of Education (59), published under the title *Suggestions for Securing Teaching Positions*, provided essential data with regard to requirements for appointment to teaching positions in various parts of the country. It was intended as a practical guide to teachers seeking employment. A study of the employability of graduates of the teacher-education curriculum was reported by Endicott (14).

III. Administrative Relations

Teachers' opinions of personnel practices in school systems were reported in a questionnaire study (34) conducted by the Research Division of the National Education Association. Three types of reactions were called for: (a) the teacher's opinion on the desirability of various personnel policies, (b) the personal and professional status of the teacher reporting, and (c) the teacher's attitude toward teaching and his present position. Responses of the teachers were reported with respect to a number of questions dealing with administrative relations.

Godwin (18) described a program in practice in the Hutchinson, Kansas,

public schools which provided for a superintendent's advisory council made up of representatives of teacher and administrative groups. An instrument developed to permit teachers to offer suggestions and express their recommendations regarding administrative policy was described by Robinson (40) in his discussion of a "teacher expressionnaire."

Nemec (35) discussed problems of teacher certification and teacher supervision, particularly as they relate to the beginning teacher. Lucas (32) emphasized the role of the principal in supervision and his responsibility for the teacher's mental health. Problems having to do with supervision of the weak teacher were discussed by Williams (61).

Spears (54) reported a study of the problems disturbing 102 teacher-college seniors who were questioned after ten weeks of student teaching. Low salaries, pettiness in professional relationships, professional jealousy, narrow attitudes and intolerance, dictatorial methods, gossiping, and rigidity of the curriculum were some of the problems mentioned.

IV. Needed Research

As noted in the beginning of this chapter, it is apparent that there is an urgent need for research in the areas of teacher selection, placement, and administrative relations. The following list of suggested projects is incomplete; it is however, suggestive of the type of research which should provide at least partial answers to some important educational problems.

What is the relation between amount of education and teaching success?

How is the amount and kind of supervision related to teaching effectiveness?

Does teaching effectiveness vary with administrative organization?

What is the nature of the relationship between length and kinds of experience and teaching effectiveness?

How does the teaching effectiveness of married and unmarried women teachers compare?

How reliable and how valid are the various procedures employed in rating teachers?

What are the most reliable and most valid procedures for conducting interviews?

What weights should be assigned various factors in selecting teachers for different types of school systems and different school situations?

To what extent are professional education courses effective in contributing to teaching success?

What are the criteria of good teaching?

What is the relationship of the possession of measurable intellectual qualities to teaching success?

What is the relationship of the possession of measurable personal qualities to teaching success?

What is the relationship of subjectmatter mastery to teaching success?

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CHAPTER VI

Inservice Education of Teachers

RICHARD C. LONSDALE

MOTIVATION continues to be the central problem in inservice education of teachers. Lumley (58) posed the question well when he asked, "How can you get teachers to develop a real interest in self-improvement?" Goodman (33) argued that "forcible feeding" cannot cause "sterile mentalities to sprout." Bowler (10) and Denny (20) condemned inservice education for college credit, especially in summer schools, in addition to which Denny also characterized professional people as "self-winding," saying that only teachers are handled like "three-dollar alarm clocks," which need to be wound up regularly at summer sessions. The *Southern Association Quarterly* (74) pointed out that only in teaching among the professions is there the practice of licensees returning regularly to study at higher institutions. Gooden (32) expressed a view defending graduate study.

After years of practically unanimous praise of workshops, as exemplified by Downes (23), the indictments of workshops by Lake (54) and Wonder (86) are a stimulating change. In their defense, however, it is only fair to state that neither of the workshops described would meet the standards which are advocated for workshops by some of the authorities (17, 22, 43, 44, 85).

Simon (72) and Brennan and Tate (11) argued the merits of graduate training in business education.

New Organizations for Inservice Education

School study councils have recorded significant achievements and seem to have greater potentialities in stimulating and facilitating inservice education of teachers. Starting around New York City the movement has spread to New England, central New York, metropolitan Detroit, central Pennsylvania, southeastern Alabama, western Pennsylvania, and, most recently, the Rocky Mountain area. The *Teachers College Record* (77) presented the most comprehensive progress report so far issued describing the work of the prototype, the Metropolitan School Study Council; activities of four of the councils are reported bi-monthly by their own journals (14, 21, 65, 75).

Haskew and Williams (39) described the formation and structure of another organization, which binds schools and higher institutions together for more effective inservice education, the Atlanta Area Teacher Education Service, which unites six school systems and six higher institutions around Atlanta.

Local Programs of Inservice Education

The faculty of the Ohio State University School (67) prepared a thoughtful analysis of the development of their cooperative inservice program since the establishment of the school in 1930. Waller (81) cited the experience of four Minnesota school systems with preschool and post-school conferences as an example of the trend in that state toward a longer school year. This trend, which is best illustrated by the famed Glencoe, Illinois, Twelve Month Plan (53), may well prove to be the most significant development in the field of inservice education of teachers for some decades. Another trend which was noted was the growth in larger school systems of inservice education courses developed and taught by staff members within the school system. Holmes (45) described a program of this type which was developed at Newton, Massachusetts.

Flint, Michigan, and New York City conducted workshops to help teachers gain a better understanding of social work and its relation to the teacher's function, according to reports by Holmlund (46) and Lippman (57). Both programs included case studies and field trips. Rosenszweig (70) outlined an intensive supervisory program in New York City which sought to give teachers of special classes retraining or even initial training in dealing with mentally retarded children.

Pittman (68) reported that Springfield, Missouri, has had several years experience with the device of employing a permanent staff of seven substitute teachers for the sole purpose of releasing regular teachers in the elementary schools for inservice training and school-improvement activities. With particular reference to a summer workshop in the same community, Cunningham and Mackenzie (19) described the advantages of local-school-system, on-the-spot workshops.

Chandler and Free (16) reported the Orange, Texas, year-round program of inservice education. A Cleveland junior-high school and the San Diego secondary schools both used "observation lessons," according to reports by Hellerstein (41) and Brown (13). About 700 San Diego teachers have attended such lessons on school time over a period of three and one-half years. Grime (35) reported that Cleveland designates nine elementary schools as centers for curriculum experimentation in specified subjectmatter areas. He also described inservice training in connection with the Arithmetic Curriculum Center. Trott and Howland (79) stated that an induction program in Des Moines, Iowa, consists of a carefully planned three-year series of monthly group meetings featuring an increasing share in the planning of the meetings as the number of the teacher's years of service increases.

County, Regional, and Statewide Programs

Bossing (9) reported that since 1942 six small Minnesota systems have been engaged in a program intended to determine how schools could

improve the quality of their school programs with (a) stimulation and guidance provided by a school of education, (b) freedom given by the state department of education to make curriculum changes, and (c) support extended to them by professional organizations. Sullivan County, Pennsylvania, conducted a cooperative study program focusing attention on individual characteristics of pupils and intended to show teachers the value of group discussions in dealing with their problems, according to reports by Lumley (58) and Lumley and Overn (59).

Johnson (49) concluded from an analysis of questionnaire surveys made in 1942 and 1946 that the lack of agreement on any factor or activity as being fundamental to a successful inservice program indicated a floundering in the search for a satisfactory program for California.

Weatherly (82) reported that teachers from Southeastern Missouri participated in a one-week workshop in air-age education to give them greater information and understanding about aviation and its problems. Joyal, McGarey, and Trent (50) mentioned improvements in Maryland and West Virginia education as outcomes of institutes on professional and public relations sponsored by the National Education Association. Statewide programs of inservice education were illustrated by reports of study-group programs in South Carolina (1) and New York (4) and of workshop programs in Ohio (25, 42), Florida (27), Wisconsin (51), Oklahoma (78), and North Carolina (83), as well as by a review (76) of attempts made in the South during the past eight years to educate teachers concerning the proper use of natural resources.

The Role of Colleges and Universities in Inservice Education

Frost (29) saw a growing acceptance by teacher-education institutions of their responsibility for continuous teacher education, both preservice and inservice, and gave an extensive list of the kinds of services which these institutions can render in this field. Behrens (6) reported that Geneseo, New York, State Teachers College conducted a clinic to help beginning teachers solve their teaching problems which arose during the first few weeks of school. Durrell (24) related the experience of Boston University with demonstration courses in reading and study in the elementary school. From the same university, Kvaraceus (52) described a problem-centered extension course in measurement, which seems to have been much more of a workshop than are many so-called workshops. Hayes and Campbell (40) told of the planning, scheduling, operating, and evaluating of a four-week demonstration school conducted during a school of education's six-week summer session.

Using data derived from questionnaires, documentary analysis, and visits and letters to universities, McKinney (60) concluded that (a) extension divisions of universities have given little or no thought to curriculum organization and have tended simply to offer isolated courses in response

to immediate demands; (b) on the average, teachers have supplied about 60 percent of the enrolment of extension divisions, with a number of courses being organized definitely for this group; and (c) extension courses have contributed toward higher standards of certification, more effective teaching, and higher salary schedules. The study is based on the period 1918-1938. Altho most directors of extension showed little understanding of the program of inservice teacher education in which they were engaged, McKinney noted that a few were becoming aware of the importance to the nation of continued inservice training of teachers.

The account by Morrison (64) of the evolution in the program of service for teachers given by the Extension Division of the University of North Carolina could probably be paralleled by accounts of similar transitions in other universities. The program described is probably representative of the general shift in emphasis which has taken place since 1921 in university extension programs for teachers. Smith (73) indicated a number of reasons why off-campus courses for teachers of vocational agriculture should have a permanent place in teacher training in that field and described Cornell University's off-campus program for teachers of vocational agriculture. Jenkins (48) outlined a graduate program for the development of a corps of master teachers. Such a program would emphasize improvement of instruction and would leave pure research and educational administration to the doctoral level.

Inservice Training of School Administrators

Hoshall (47) received 257 usable returns from his questionnaire on the preprincipalship and inservice professional education of randomly selected secondary-school principals thruout the country. He found (a) no discernible pattern of courses in the professional education of these persons; (b) relatively few principals who had studied technical courses pertaining to school finance or buildings and grounds; (c) only a few principals who had studied courses bearing on the larger aspects of their positions, such as community relations and guidance and counseling; (d) a need for an internship or some other arrangement for prospective principals similar to that of practice teaching for teachers; and (e) a need for colleges to adopt a philosophy of working together with high-school principals not only to implement the inservice education of the principals but also to realize the benefit which would accrue to the college program.

Lauderbach's dissertation pertaining to elementary-school principals (55) complemented Hoshall's. Lauderbach's study was based on questionnaires submitted to teachers, principals, and superintendents in two California counties. His returns indicated a need for (a) improving methods in the supervision of instruction used by elementary-school principals, (b) implementing a democratic staff organization for cooperative planning, (c) developing a modern philosophy of education in the school

and community, and (d) placing major effort upon the educational direction of the school. The five inservice technics used most frequently by elementary-school principals for encouraging their own professional growth were: (a) making speeches, (b) receiving inservice training within the local school system, (c) increasing their mastery of a given subject, (d) specializing in a particular field, and (e) studying new movements in education.

Haskew (38) reported the experience of the University of Texas with a series of one-week summer work conferences for school administrators.

Special Technics

Several writers (13, 24, 40, 41, 71) supported the use of or described practices involving observation, demonstration, and intervisitation. Bemer (7) reported that in 1948 the "flying classroom," then in its fifth summer, took forty-six school executives on a 7500-mile round-the-country tour for thirty days under the sponsorship of Michigan State College and the American Association of School Administrators. Williams (84) reported an interesting use of sociodrama in presenting a study-group report as part of a workshop on human resources and intercultural education. The Educational Research Service (26) made a very limited survey of teachers' attitudes toward travel and surveyed policies subscribed to by thirty-four cities over 30,000 in population, all state and territorial departments of education, and 198 colleges and universities concerning professional credit for travel.

Special Studies

Of 244 items examined for this review, only fifteen (15, 18, 26, 28, 34, 36, 42, 47, 49, 55, 56, 60, 62, 63, 66) could be classified as reports of formal research studies. Eleven of these made use of the questionnaire in gathering data; three, of documentary analysis; two, of direct observation; two, of letters; and two, of testing procedures using original instruments. Under a more lenient classification certain others could also be considered research studies—Morrison's report (64) illustrating historical research and Troyer's (80), case studies. If the many reports of practices were to be classified as research, the list could be expanded to include well over 100 items.

A study of Good's lists (31) for the triennium revealed approximately five doctoral dissertations under way in the area of inservice education of teachers during 1946, five during 1947, and ten during 1948. Whether the apparent increase in research in the field is a real trend remains to be seen.

Troyer (80) presented a professional case history of a teacher over a five-year period showing how a young teacher moved from professional failure to leadership under the understanding guidance of a supervisor. It

would seem that this type of approach could be used widely in measuring the nature and extent of teacher growth rather than simply assuming it, as many studies do (58, 59).

Carter's study (15) of the questionnaire responses of 100 California teachers and administrators demonstrated their dissatisfaction with the teachers institute, at least as conducted in that state. He suggested more participation by teachers in planning institute programs as one means of improving them. Bawden and Ludwig (5) advocated the adaptation of the institute to a new purpose, the articulation of school and community, by using it to inform and interest the entire community about educational, social, political, and economic problems.

In her dissertation involving the documentary analysis of 105 reports of city surveys from 1912 to 1945, Graf (34) classified methods for teacher improvement as administration-initiated or teacher-initiated. Under the former she found supervision and leaves of absence receiving the greatest emphasis as methods for individual improvement, while the teachers' meeting, when it was cooperatively planned, was regarded as one of the best methods for group improvement. Summer sessions and extension courses were mentioned most often under teacher-initiated methods of improvement.

As a result of their questionnaire survey of teachers in 240 West Virginia schools, Cook and Full (18) reluctantly concluded that the faculty meetings in the elementary and secondary schools of that state did not provide the stimuli basic to professional growth that could be expected of this technic.

An appraisal of the program of inservice education among the forty-one teachers of a Little Rock, Arkansas, high school led Martin (62, 63) to conclude that the teachers gained greater insight into their roles thru the program and, therefore, improved the conditions under which the students were living and working. He used two questionnaires: one with 256 students in Grades X, XI, and XII, and the other with teachers.

Emans (28) and Henderson (42) constructed attitude inventories to measure changes in teachers' attitudes as a result of workshops.

Using evidence obtained in the fall and in the spring from four sources—his attitude inventory, his *Teachers' Educational Practices Scale*, his own observations and judgments, and the observations and judgments of supervisors—Emans (28) derived these findings: (a) the difference between the means of the attitudes of 118 teachers on the scale before and after the cooperative study was 4.66, significant at the .001 level; (b) there was only a pure chance change in the mean scores of 118 teachers on the educational practices scale; (c) there was a significant change in the ratings of fifty teachers by supervisors; and (d) a significant change was found by the author for eighteen teachers on the practice scale. Emans concluded that cooperative-study programs are an effective method of inservice education and can significantly influence teachers' attitudes. The

program evaluated was part of the over-all program reported by Krug (51).

Henderson's (42) was the most comprehensive and the most carefully executed evaluation of an inservice education program examined by the writer for this review. She evaluated the program of twenty-six two-to-four-day workshops for elementary-school teachers planned by the Ohio State Department of Education during the period from September 1944 to December 1947. She obtained pretest and end-test results from 153 teachers on an original *Inventory of Attitudes toward Teaching*, replies to a questionnaire from 338 teachers, replies to a different questionnaire from fifty-five principals, and seventy-eight answers to a letter of inquiry sent to those who had served as consultants to various workshops. She found that after the workshops were concluded a number of changes had taken place in teacher attitudes. These changes occurred in the direction of being more democratic and were significant at the 1 percent level. She also found that the workshops were mainly administrative arrangements which violated the psychological principle concerning the value of cooperative planning. She recommended a continuation of the program of workshops with a number of changes for higher-quality service based on the premise that there should be a cooperative identification of the needs of the teachers to be served.

Characteristics of Successful Workshops

The workshop continued to be the subject of a considerable portion of the literature in the field. Downes (23) reviewed this literature for the period from January 1940 to March 1946. Hartung (37) was one of several writers commenting on the deplorably loose usage made of the term "workshop." He noted the tendency for workshops to be devoted more commonly to some specific segment or problem of education rather than to the general problems of education and favored the trend toward the increased use of the local workshop. Cole (17), DeYoung (22), Herrick (43, 44), McMullin (61), and Winetrout and Robertson (85) formulated generalizations on the characteristics of successful workshops and made recommendations for their improvement.

General Principles and Procedures of Inservice Education

The North Central Association report (36, 66) combined in one publication some new material with some findings earlier reported by Weber in the REVIEW for June 1943 and June 1946. It identified four types of inservice education which were revealed by a questionnaire study of 247 schools: (a) the "do-nothing" type, (b) the administrator-planned type, (c) the opportunistic type, and (d) the cooperative type. Valuable checklists were included (66) for rating the kind of inservice education pro-

gram of any given school. McMullin (61) cataloged some types of inservice education.

Anderson (3), Brooks (12), the fine report of a teacher-education workshop conducted at the George Peabody College for Teachers (30), Henderson (42), Lingren (56), and Martin (62) provided criteria from which could be compiled a master report of the current best thinking on inservice education for teachers. The final reports of the Commission on Teacher Education (2, 69), together with Bigelow's commentary (8) on the work of that major study, should be added to this list, but deserve this separate mention. The first of these (2) could be rated as the most important item in the "reflective literature" on inservice education of teachers for the period from 1946 thru 1948 since it was the distillation of the experience of what was probably the most significant study of teacher education in action in the second quarter of this century.

Suggested Research

The following would seem to be potential areas for further research in the inservice education of teachers: (a) the application to inservice education of the findings in the area of group dynamics, (b) investigations, especially experimental studies, of the nature and extent of teacher growth in service, (c) investigations of the dynamics of teacher motivation as related to inservice education, (d) the development of case studies and of case-study technics for the analysis of the professional growth of teachers, and (e) the application of the findings and methods of geriatrics to the problem of encouraging continuing growth of older teachers.

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CHAPTER VII

Preparation of College Teachers

C. ROBERT PACE

NEW PROGRAMS for the preparation of college teachers are being widely discussed. As these become translated into actuality, opportunities for research on their effectiveness will multiply. The background of dissatisfaction with past programs, the proposals for change, and the need for research as new plans materialize are reviewed briefly in the present chapter, the first appearance of this topic in the REVIEW.

Hollis (12) quoted Daniel C. Gilman as saying, on the occasion of his inauguration in 1876 as President of the Johns Hopkins University, "I can hardly doubt that such arrangements as we are maturing will cause this institution to be a place for the training of professors and teachers for the highest academic posts; and I hope in time to see arrangements made for unfolding the philosophy, principles, and methods of education in a way which will be of service to those who mean to devote their lives to the highest departments of instruction." Seventy years later the President's Commission on Higher Education (21) recorded its judgment that in spite of a growing demand for change there was little to indicate that the graduate schools were fully aware of their obligations in the preparation of college faculty members. The Commission described college teaching as the only major learned profession for which there does not exist a well-defined program of preparation directed toward developing the skills which the practitioner must possess. The early vision of Gilman did not materialize in a program for training college teachers. Only now has it finally become clear that new programs for preparing college teachers are in the making, often rapidly in many places.

The pressure for reform came from several sources, all part of the enlarging pattern of higher education in America. There was first the increased student enrolments with their consequent demand for increased staff. This has been amply documented by the President's Commission (20), by Russell (23), Walters (31), and the *New York World-Telegram* (19). The jump from 1,500,000 to 2,500,000 college students in less than a decade characterized a trend which had been growing in strength for nearly a century. According to the President's Commission on Higher Education (20), the present collegiate staff of 150,000 should be doubled by 1952 and another 50,000 instructors should be added by 1960. There was second the spread of general education in liberal arts colleges and universities and the establishment of new junior colleges, community colleges, and technical institutes. This spread is clear from the analyses of McGrath (16, 17), Bogue (3), and the Cooperative Study in General Education (6). And third, there was the increased conviction that the

program of specialization and research typically required for the Ph.D. might not be appropriate for college teachers, particularly those who would later be teaching undergraduates and be involved in courses designed for general education. Hollis (12) provided the basic data for this reevaluation of graduate training by analyzing the employment status in 1940 of 22,509 persons who received the Ph.D. degree during the period 1930-31 to 1939-40 and finding that 65 percent were college professors. Analyzed by types of duties, Hollis' data show that half of the Ph.D.'s were engaged primarily in teaching as contrasted with one-fourth who were employed primarily in research. The need for new graduate programs was stressed by Jones (14), Blegen (2), Eckert (7), Sewell (25), Kilpatrick (15), Fleege (8), and many others.

Proposals for a Broader Ph.D.

The most specific blueprint for training college teachers was one proposed by Eckert (7). She would include a substantial bloc of professional orientation in the graduate program which would include apprentice teaching and opportunities to make case studies, to practice counseling, and to see the varied services and programs of a university firsthand; and provision for gaining some understanding of the psychology of the learner, of major problems and forces in higher education, of the adjustment and guidance problems of youth, and of the instruments of appraisal. Sewell (25) suggested, regretfully, that the doctor's dissertation be abandoned. Fleege (8) proposed dropping the language requirement except where obviously necessary as a tool of research and he also proposed that the time spent on the dissertation be cut in half. Kilpatrick (15), and most of the others who had written on this subject, would include understanding of the aims and purposes of higher education, some conception of the learning process, and both observation and practice teaching in the new Ph.D. programs. Jones (14) proposed that graduate institutions which have as their purpose the training of research workers be designated as Research Training Institutes; that a new unit, called the Graduate College, be created for the purpose of training teachers for the general work of the liberal arts colleges; and that both institutions grant the Ph.D. degree. The President's Commission (21) summed up the opinions of many educators and challenged the graduate schools by stating that prospective faculty members should develop sound scholarship, professional competence, a clear concept of the role of higher education in society, broad humanistic understanding, insight into motivation, and a sympathetic and intelligent understanding of young people.

Progress toward a Better Product

Blegen (2) pointed out that something approaching a revolution in graduate study was quietly underway. He credited the nonthesis plan for

the master's degree as giving impetus to broader programs and cited the spread of interdepartmental or area programs as further evidence of a broader, changing pattern of graduate study appropriate for college teachers. Workshops in higher education for faculty members in service have been sponsored by such leading universities as Columbia, Stanford, Chicago, Minnesota, and Northwestern. Blegen (2) also noted that several universities offered fellowships to students who show unusual promise for college teaching careers. Cooper (5) reported the results of a cooperative project among twenty-eight colleges of the North Central Association. Tolley (29) described the Doctorate of Social Science program at Syracuse University. This program includes thirty semester hours in one social science, eighteen in each of two others, and six in a fourth. Foreign language is not required but an understanding of research technics in three social-science areas (such as statistics, historical documentation, legal search, behavior and attitude analysis, and graphic presentation) is required. Direct teaching experience is part of the program. The first candidates under this plan have already been graduated. Goode (9) described a teaching seminar for faculty and graduate students at Oregon State College. Williams and Jenkins (32) gave an account of the instructor-training program at the Air University, Montgomery, Alabama.

Need for Research

Since only a few graduate schools are even now beginning to make conscious efforts to prepare students for college teaching as such, it is obvious that research on the effectiveness of the new training programs can not yet be available. The need for new training programs is argued largely on philosophical considerations, altho these have in most cases been based upon interpretations of census-type data. That the familiar Ph.D. route of specialization and research to a career in college teaching has resulted in poor teaching is primarily a judgment expressed by many college administrators and educators rather than a conclusion which follows from comprehensive research investigations.

Over the next decade there should be many college teachers trained under new doctorate programs, and the opportunity to compare the status of these students with those concurrently trained in the same institutions under traditional patterns must be utilized to good advantage by numerous research workers. Follow-up studies of subsequent teaching effectiveness should also be planned. No great advance in the technics of appraising college faculties has been made since the comprehensive studies of Haggerty (11) in 1937 for the Committee on Revision of Standards of the North Central Association. The use of student ratings of professors was found helpful and reliable in several colleges. The reports of Taylor, Hankins, and Lazerowitz (28), Remmers, Davenport, and Potter (22), and Hoppock (13) are typical. But studies at the college level have not

equaled in quantity or quality similar investigations of public-school teachers as reported by Barr and others (1), Cook and Leeds (4), Symonds (26, 27), Witty (33), and Ryans (24). Umstadd (30) reported the instructional procedures used at the Army's American University in Biarritz and compared them with procedures used by the same teachers in their home institutions. The procedures used in the Army School were, in general, further from the ideal than were the procedures normally followed by the professors who made the comparisons. Greene and others (10) described procedures for evaluating instruction in the Air University. It is encouraging to note that Blegen (2) reported an increased interest among several college faculties to restudy the criteria for appointment and promotion and to define teaching ability more carefully.

Research on the preparation of college teachers will make significant progress as the criteria of effective teaching in college become more clearly defined, for the ultimate test of any program is the quality of its product.

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CHAPTER VIII

Teaching Load and Assignments

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TWENTY studies written during the period covered by this review which were relevant to the subject of this chapter were selected for analysis. Three of these studies were nationwide in scope but were limited to cities which subscribed to the Educational Research Service and, therefore, were probably not representative of the country as a whole since membership in the Service is of itself a selective factor. The other studies which were analyzed were even less representative of the nation because they were state or regional in scope. The meagerness and the inadequacy of the findings here summarized should therefore be borne in mind, and, in view of the much publicized critical situation in many schools due to overloaded and poorly trained teachers, more substantial studies should be undertaken to get at the truth of the problem of load and assignment.

Policy Concerning Class Size

There was increasing evidence of the existence of smaller classes as a policy among schools of all sizes that subscribed to the Educational Research Service. According to the Educational Research Service report (5), in cities with a population under 30,000, 14 percent reported smaller elementary-school classes in 1940-41 than in 1939-40 and 35 percent reported similarly for 1945-46 and 1946-47, while the proportion of schools which reported larger classes were 2 percent and 3 percent, respectively, for the same years; junior-high-school classes compared for the same years showed that 16 percent and 42 percent of the schools reduced the size of classes during the years compared, while 2 percent of the schools increased the size of classes in each comparison; and for senior high schools comparable percents for smaller classes were 16 and 27, while for larger classes the percents were 5 and 6. The Service (4) reported that the findings for cities from 30,000 to 100,000 in size agree in nature and extent with those just quoted except that for elementary schools between 1939-40 and 1940-41 the same percent, 14, was reported for both smaller and larger classes, and for junior high schools for the same years 8 percent reported smaller classes and 12 percent reported larger classes. According to the Service (6), in cities above 100,000 in population the 1939-40 and 1940-41 comparisons showed smaller differences between percents for smaller and larger classes but the 1944-45 and 1945-46 comparisons gave percents which paralleled those reported above for the group of smallest cities with markedly more cities reporting smaller than larger classes. If it may be assumed that the schools included

in these surveys reflected best practice, it may be stated that the policy of reducing the size of classes was being adopted by the better schools of the nation. Similar findings were reported by Howell's study (8) of school systems in cities with population above 100,000. According to this study a decrease in average size of class between 1944-45 and 1947-48 was reported by thirty-three of the thirty-seven cities for their elementary schools, twenty-two of the twenty-eight cities for their junior high schools, and twenty-five of the thirty-five cities for their senior high schools. Rogers (18) also reported that the pupil-teacher ratio in elementary schools in Chicago was reduced from forty-two to one in 1936 to thirty-four to one in 1946, while in high schools it was reduced from thirty-two to one in 1936 to twenty-six to one in 1946. The New Rochelle survey of class size (17) criticized the pupil-teacher ratio formula which includes special teachers because "these specialists do not reduce the size of the class being taught at the moment." The same survey reported the tendency to increase the size of sections until they were at least twice the minimum, regardless of the stated maximum, and concluded that a fixed minimum is undesirable as a policy. "We could have forty-nine children in one class, waiting for the fiftieth to form two groups of twenty-five."

Teacher Load

McDaid and others (11) reported an average work week for Detroit high-school teachers of forty-four clock hours, of which thirty-two were devoted to teaching activities and twelve were devoted to extracurriculum activities which took place in the late afternoons, evenings, and weekends. By departments the length of work weeks by hours were as follows: English, 48.6; social studies, 46.6; foreign languages, 45.9; sciences, 45; health, 44; mathematics, 43; vocational, 42; commercial, 41; music, 41; and art, 41. These authors further reported that the expected duty was 6.5 hours daily, or 32.5 hours weekly. A report from five counties in the Bay Section of California (1) showed the average number of hours per week devoted to school duties by elementary-school teachers to be 45.25 and for high-school teachers, 54.96. Both figures include "professional growth" and "professional organizations" (4.70 hours for elementary and 6.17 hours for high school) as well as time devoted to regular duties in school and community. The average number of interruptions endured by the elementary teachers in this study was 12.48 per week while their fellows in high school had their classes interrupted an average of twenty-two times per week. The teachers would agree that interruptions add considerably to the burden, if not to the hours of service, of the teacher.

Extra Pay for Extra Load

The principle of extra pay for work beyond the normal load, long in vogue for coaches and other special workers, has recently been applied

to a wider range of teachers in a number of school systems. Kriner (10) reported a plan developed cooperatively by teachers and administrators for the high schools of Altoona, Pennsylvania. Basic elements in the plan are two: (a) standard work-week of thirty-five hours, including twenty-five hours of teaching and ten hours devoted to homerooms, study groups, or clubs; and (b) compensation in accordance with the degree of responsibility for hours in excess of the regularly required work week devoted to student activities, the amount of compensation having been previously determined by a committee of teachers. Comparable plans were developed in Minneapolis and St. Paul (12, 20). In these plans a flat amount is specified for each of sixteen activities or services for Minneapolis and for each of nineteen for St. Paul. In both cities the additional payment is received only for work done outside the specified school day. According to reports made by the Research Division of the National Education Association definite provisions were made for extra pay for extra duties in twenty-four of two hundred salary schedules for 1947-48 examined for cities in the 30,000-100,000 population range (14) and in seventeen of seventy-two schedules for 1946-47 in larger cities (13). A recent report (15) for the larger cities over 100,000 in population shows nineteen of seventy schedules with some provision for extra pay for extra duties in 1948-49.

The *Nation's Schools* poll (16) on the best way to manage extra pay for heavy extracurriculum load resulted in the following rank order of methods: (a) pay adequate salaries to all teachers and forbid extra pay for extra hours; (b) divide teaching duties into two categories, one of which is allowed extra pay; (c) equalize teaching load, permitting late arrival of those who work evenings and Saturdays; (d) pay for all extra hours beyond a set number per week; and (e) do away with interschool activities that require prolonged coaching.

Measuring Teacher Load

Cole (3) sought to determine thru teacher judgment the relative difficulty of five aspects of teaching in fifteen high-school fields and reported rank order as follows: class instruction, 4.5; preparation, 3.3; evaluating results, 2.7; management and use of equipment, 2.5; and conferences, 2.1. Cole (3) also reported a ranking of high-school subjects as to teaching difficulty by a method which used the five aspects of teaching as follows: science, 4.2; home economics and manual arts, 4; typing and composition, 3.6; American history, civics, economics, mathematics, and arts, 3.4; oral expression, music, and bookkeeping, 3.2; literature, foreign language, and world history, 3; and stenography, 2.6. Irwin (9) suggested a plan for the revision of the Douglass formula to differentiate for pupil activities of varying difficulties. Garland (7) reported an experiment with a cooperative plan by which one group of teachers weighed the difficulty of extracurriculum activities and accepted assignments accordingly.

Adjustments to Teacher Shortage

Romine (19) concluded that the teacher shortage in 229 Colorado schools resulted in wider teaching combinations, particularly in smaller high schools. He found a trend toward narrower combinations, however, in larger schools. In 233 Texas high schools between 1945-46 and 1946-47, Umstatted (21) found the following adjustments being made: increasing size of class, closing twenty-five fields of study before all students were cared for, completely abandoning twenty-four fields of study in one or more of the schools, and assigning teachers to fields for which they were not prepared. Constructive measures for meeting the handicaps included inservice training, increased salaries, improved supervision, and cooperative effort to keep up morale. Chase (2) suggested a plan by which the efficiency of the available staff may be increased by preventing "power leaks."

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CHAPTER IX

Teachers' Salaries, Pensions, and Retirement Pay

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THIS chapter combines two topics treated separately in former issues of the REVIEW. Research on teachers' salaries is reported in the first part of the article while the second part deals with research on teachers' retirement systems.

I. Salaries

During 1946, 1947, and 1948 great public interest in teachers' salaries was shown and much activity was aimed at the improvement of salary policies. Research on this topic continued to be limited largely to fact-finding, with only a limited degree of analysis and generalization.

Nationwide Salary Crisis

Because inadequate salaries were believed to be a major cause of the teacher shortage that reached its peak in 1946-47 nationwide attention was focused on the problem. A number of reports (14, 23, 37, 41) analyzed the situation on a national basis. According to Hubbard (23) approximately half of the nation's teachers were paid less than \$2000 for their services in the school year 1946-47 and over 100,000 were teaching on emergency certificates. Examples of related studies include those issued in Arizona (2), California (60), Delaware (20), Kansas (28), Minnesota (31), Nebraska (9), New Jersey (47), New Mexico (48), Oregon (53), Virginia (1), Washington (63), and Wisconsin (64).

The devaluation of the teacher's dollar thru high prices was emphasized by many agencies. In March 1947, Clark (10) began a series of reports on teachers' salaries and the cost of living in which he issued monthly figures on the purchasing power of the average salary of teachers. MacNaughton (29) reported on declining living standards of college faculty members. The Research Division of the National Education Association (34, 39) issued reports from time to time in which the relationships of teachers' salaries to cost of living and other economic trends were analyzed.

Increases in salaries, which were the result in large part of the work of the 1947 legislatures, were reported by the Research Division of the National Education Association (34, 36, 39, 40). The Division reported that the average annual salary of teachers, principals, supervisors, and other instructional personnel of the public elementary and secondary schools showed an increase from \$1420 in the calendar year 1939 to an estimated \$2650 in the calendar year 1948. State education associations and state departments of education also reported salary gains in California

(8), Connecticut (11), Illinois (17), Indiana (25), Kansas (26), Maryland (30), Michigan (13), New York (50), Ohio (52), and Pennsylvania (54).

These increases in teachers' average salaries, however, were offset in large degree by other economic trends, as was shown by the Research Division of the National Education Association (39) in the following figures for the period from 1939 thru the calendar year 1947: increase in average annual salary of teachers, principals, supervisors, and other instructional personnel, 66 percent; increase in cost of living (Consumers' Price Index of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics), 59 percent; increase in the average annual salary-wage earnings per capita of all employed persons, 105 percent; increase in annual wage income per employed industrial worker, 202 percent; and increase in average annual net income per person engaged in agriculture, 304 percent.

State Salary Standards

According to the Research Division of the National Education Association (36), the number of states in which minimum-salary standards are fixed by state authority continued to increase until there were thirty-two such states in September 1947. Burke (5) summarized and evaluated 1947 legislative changes in state minimum-salary schedules, giving special recognition to the statutes in Maryland, Delaware, and Pennsylvania and questioning the complexity of the merit schedule enacted in New York State. Disadvantages in state minimum schedules and advantages of state apportionment schedules were set forth by Morphet (32). In the Florida plan, described by Morphet, state aid for salaries is apportioned in varying amounts depending on the level of preparation of teachers employed by local districts, but the districts are left free to develop their own schedules for the expenditure of the salary funds. Baldwin (3) traced the development of the West Virginia schedule, which is supported largely by state funds.

The Single Salary Schedule

Progress continued toward the general adoption of schedules of the preparation or single salary type. In these schedules, differences between elementary-school and secondary-school salaries for classroom teachers are eliminated and salaries are classified on the basis of the preparation of the teachers. According to the Research Division (36) all of the state minimum-salary standards in effect in 1947-48 were the single salary type. The Research Division stated (37) that in 1946-47, 64 percent of the city school schedules reported to it were single salary schedules.

Four hundred fifty-two single salary schedules were analyzed and reported upon by the Research Division (35). Simpson's studies (57, 58)

of local salary-schedule policies questioned some of the customary features of the single salary schedule. He recommended (58) that instead of adopting fixed maximum salaries for various salary classes based on level of preparation schools should adopt a "professional improvement schedule" in which the top maximum salary is attainable by all teachers, provided they meet the requirements for continuing professional improvement on which the annual increments are conditioned. He minimized the importance of providing definite "salary steps" on an automatic basis and recommended that the board have discretionary powers for withholding increments or granting double increments. In contrast, the Research Division's analysis (35) emphasized the importance of fixed salary steps and warned against a flexibility of administration which would permit a return to the individual bargaining which salary schedules are designed to prevent. Santee (56) presented evidence on behalf of a recommendation that the single salary plan should extend to principals as well as to classroom teachers.

Quality of Service as a Salary Determinant

Commissions appointed by the governors of North Carolina and New York reported early in 1947 on the feasibility of including provisions in the state minimum-salary schedule to recognize the quality of service of individual teachers. The conclusions of the two committees were, however, in conflict. The North Carolina group (51) reported that it had been unable to find any instrument for measuring teaching efficiency which could be accepted as valid for determining salaries and recommended a three-year program of research and experimentation. The New York commission (49) proposed a minimum-salary schedule with four promotional levels above the initial salary classification. This proposal was incorporated into legislation over the protests of many teaching groups.

Much argument but little research was published on this issue toward the end of the period covered by this review. Hodgdon's article (22), one of the several in opposition to the 1947 New York schedule, presented a symposium of points of view of educational authorities. Local studies by Brownell and others (4) and Simpson (57) recommended flexibility of application at the upper end of the schedule so as to recognize quality of service.

Principles of Salary Scheduling

Hinchey (21) made a study of relationships between teachers' salaries and the wages of unskilled labor in 252 school districts in Michigan, testing the permanency of the index relationships reported earlier by Burgess and by Moehlman and proposed by Moehlman in 1927 as the basic point of reference for salary scheduling. Hinchey's 1943-44 figures, which showed a greater spread between minimum and maximum salaries

of teachers than had been reported earlier, led him to suggest a revision of the Moehlman index. With the weekly wages of unskilled labor established as a base of 100, he recommended that the weekly wages of teachers (to be multiplied by the number of weeks in the school year to produce the annual total) represent the following index values: teacher with two years preparation, minimum 170 and maximum 240; with four years preparation, minimum 180 and maximum 320; with five years preparation, minimum 200 and maximum 340.

In urging that salaries be fixed on a scientific basis, Griffiths (16) quoted the Moehlman index and a formula proposed by Dennis H. Cooke as examples of the desired scientific approach.

Several writers (4, 12, 18) urged that in setting up salary schedules increased thought should be given to defining the cost of a professional level of living as an objective basis for salary proposals. Some writers, Hunkins (24), for example, in defining the cost of a professional level of living recommended a salary differential to recognize the difference between teachers with dependents and those without dependents.

Emphasis on continued professional growth as a condition for salary advancement, as recommended by Simpson and McLeary (58), represents a principle of salary scheduling that received increased acceptance.

Articles by Cooper (12) and Haskew (18) are representative of many that discussed the principles that should underlie teachers' salary schedules. Pitkin (55), writing for the Massachusetts Teachers Federation, compiled suggestions on the preparation and presentation of salary-schedule proposals.

A discussion pamphlet, in which the pros and cons of various issues in salary scheduling were set forth, was prepared cooperatively by two divisions of the National Education Association (33).

II. Pension and Retirement Pay

Research in teacher retirement in the past three years may be grouped into three major categories: (a) analyses of statutory provisions, (b) statistical reports, and (c) surveys of attitudes and conditions among retired teachers. Studies of each of these three types, both local and nationwide in scope, were published. In addition, there was an occasional publication in the teacher retirement field which does not fit exclusively into any one of these three categories.

Analyses of Statutory Provisions

Three nationwide surveys of existing statutory provisions for teacher retirement were made by the Research Division of the National Education Association in cooperation with the National Council on Teacher Retirement (42, 44, 45). The January 1946 report (44) tabulated brief digests of statewide joint-contributory retirement provisions in forty-four

states and Hawaii and summarized in the introduction to the report the laws of three other statewide plans not included in the tabular part of the report. At that time Idaho was the only state without a statewide retirement law. According to Wright (65), later in 1946 Idaho enacted a retirement law and during the 1947 legislative session many amendments were made to other laws. The National Education Association, therefore, issued a supplement (45) to its 1946 report to include both Idaho provisions and the statutory changes made by other states subsequent to the publication of the 1946 report. In the meantime a similar report (42), which summarized local teacher retirement laws, was issued by the National Education Association in January 1947.

One desirable feature of these three reports was that they all used the same manner of presentation. Each report consisted chiefly of tabulations of brief summaries of statutory provisions under identical categories. It is possible, therefore, by studying these reports not only to make comparisons among systems but also to ascertain the prevailing practice with respect to any particular retirement-law provision.

Analyses of statutory provisions of particular retirement laws were numerous. Many journals of the state education associations contained brief articles on this topic. Such analyses were usually on a much smaller scale than the nationwide analyses previously mentioned and they have been omitted from the bibliography of this chapter because they were primarily of local interest. However, two reports may be mentioned here as being illustrative of the types. Taylor (61) made a thoro analysis of the New York City teachers retirement law and published his findings in a simplified form for the information of the members of the system. His report exemplified the type of "teacher information circular" issued by many state retirement systems. Burke (6) compared the provisions of the New York State teachers retirement law with those of the New York State employees retirement law. The comparison was factual and stated no conclusions regarding the relative merits of differing provisions.

During practically every legislative year someone summarizes the legislative changes in teacher-retirement laws. Enactments of 1947 were reviewed by Wright (65). These reports, however, seem to have assumed a previous acquaintance in the field of teacher retirement which could hardly be expected on the part of the average reader. Standing alone, articles of this type can give only a superficial understanding of the effects of the amendments reported.

Statistical Reports

Every state and most local teacher retirement systems are required by law to issue an annual report. In many cases these annual reports consist only of a financial statement and list of investments. However, annual reports of some retirement systems constitute in themselves research in the field of teacher retirement. One example of such a report is the 1948

Report of the Territorial Retirement and Pension Commission of Hawaii (62). The report included both a summary of existing retirement provisions for governmental employees in the territory and extensive statistical material concerning the system as it is operated at present and as it would operate if suggested amendments were adopted. Annual reports of teacher-retirement systems, even when they are only a simple financial statement, would seem to provide a valuable source of material for one contemplating research in this field. The fact that no research has been reported which could have been based upon a compilation of such annual reports suggests that an important source of research material is being neglected.

The National Education Association (43) issued in June 1948 a compilation of statistics on membership and fiscal data covering the year 1946-47, based upon questionnaire replies made by state and local retirement administrators. This report was one of a series of similar reports issued every four or five years by this organization. Each compilation in the series follows practically the same pattern of presentation, including the tabulation of state and local figures on membership since the establishment of each system and on membership during the last completed membership year. Fiscal data include a similar tabulation with respect to income and its sources, disbursements, ledger assets and liabilities, investments, retirement allowances paid, and administrative expenses. The current report gave a more detailed breakdown of retirement allowances paid than had been given in previous reports in the series. An interpretive discussion accompanied each table of statistics in the report. Retirement allowances were reported to range from \$3.72 to \$6339.48 per year among forty statewide systems, Hawaii, and thirty-five local systems included in the 1948 publication. The average allowance paid in six statewide systems and in eight local systems was over \$1000.

Mathematical analyses of particular retirement systems were published occasionally. Burke (7) studied the effect of salary levels on teacher-retirement allowances in New York State and reported the amount of savings or additional insurance which a teacher would be required to have upon retirement in order to make his retirement income equal to half of his final average salary. This sort of research would be of value in other states.

Surveys of Attitudes and Conditions among Retired Teachers

The primary research in this category was conducted at the University of Chicago by a subcommittee of the Social Science Research Council (59), of which Havighurst was the chairman. Preliminary research prior to the nationwide study by this group was undertaken among the retired teachers in the city of Chicago and was summarized by Henry (19). The Social Science Research Council did not limit itself to retired teachers in its nationwide study, however, but included a number of other occu-

pational groups. The raw data were then given to the Research Division of the National Education Association for a study of retired teachers as compared with persons retired from other fields. The report of the Research Division (38) found that the pattern of life for retired teachers followed rather closely the pattern for persons who, prior to retirement, had been engaged in business, clerical work, farming, other professions, or who had been skilled, semiskilled, or unskilled workers or housewives. A few distinctions were found, however: teachers were living on retirement allowances and pensions to a greater extent than were nonteachers, were more independent financially than were others, and had both more friends among young people and a wider circle of acquaintances than did nonteachers. Loneliness, as measured in this study, was found to be lower among teachers than among people retired from other kinds of life work.

Miscellaneous Studies

Greenough's book (15) was a detailed analysis of provisions for college pension and retirement plans including, but not limited to, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America. Various provisions were reported in relation to principles of retirement and also with respect to plans operated by particular colleges. As to the scope of coverage of college teachers Greenough found that altho 40 percent of the United States colleges and universities did not have a retirement plan these institutions employed only 15 percent of the college teachers in the country. Of the colleges that had plans 56 percent used TIAA contracts, 21 percent were state or city supported, and the others were maintained under a variety of plans.

Looking Forward

Small beginnings have been made in two areas of teacher-retirement research. One is the comparison of state and local retirement provisions and benefits with those of the federal security plan which was reported in the June 1946 issue of the REVIEW. The possibilities of developing this comparison are almost unlimited and the need for considerably more research is great. The other area is the comparison of reciprocity provisions between teacher-retirement systems of different states so that teachers may move from one state to another without being penalized at time of retirement. The National Council on Teacher Retirement is in the process of a detailed study of this problem.

The statutory and statistical analyses of teacher retirement should, of course, be continued, but there should be more done by way of evaluating statutory provisions, especially in connection with the statistics of operations. Retirement laws have been evaluated from the point of view of

theoretical principles, but they should also be evaluated on the basis of their adequacy in practice. Lewis (27) approached the reciprocity problem from this point of view and found what he called the worm at the core of our retirement systems.

Perhaps a just criticism might be made of all teacher-retirement research—that reports of status are adequate, well done, in fact, but that there is a lack of research intended as evaluation of existing status, either statutory or statistical. Research in teacher retirement in the future should turn to this neglected area.

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CHAPTER X

Teacher Certification

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

THE REVIEW of research in the area of teacher certification may be approached from two points of view. The one is entirely bibliographical while the other seeks out research studies which provide answers to specific problems. The first approach provides answers for certain problems but does not identify the problems which remain unsolved in a given area; the second confines the scope of the review of research to the vision of the reviewer. The present report is based upon an attempt to combine the two approaches. The report which follows attempts to classify the research which has been done and to indicate what problems remain unsolved because of the lack of pertinent investigations.

In the main there are two categories of problems involved in teacher certification. In one category are problems of status which can be solved thru investigations or surveys of the practices now followed by the states in issuing certificates to teach. The other category of problems concerns the justification for, or lack of justification of, the present practices followed in teacher certification. Weight of opinion, as expressed in common practice, does not necessarily indicate a justifiable practice.

Most of the research in this area is in the nature of surveys of practices being followed at the time the research was undertaken. All the studies which are reviewed are separated for purposes of this report into two groups: current status studies and studies concerned with the bases for improving certification in the future. Under the first heading the following topics are discussed: (a) state and regional association requirement, (b) number of teachers certified to teach, (c) certification requirements in special education, and (d) special problems—life certification, emergency certificates, and examination. The three following topics are discussed under the second category: (a) study of teachers who failed to obtain permanent certificates, (b) inconsistencies in certification requirements, and (c) how to improve teaching thru certification.

Current Status

The current status of teacher certification is of interest to many professional workers and those laymen who are preparing to teach or who are concerned with the education of children in this country. Data regarding the state and regional association certification requirements pertaining to essential academic and professional preparation are annually digested and presented by Woellner and Wood (37) and are published at intervals by the Office of Education (15).

The situation in regard to the numbers of certificates granted by states is occasionally studied and reported upon. Typical of such reports are those of Burkman (7) and Chisholm and Henzlik (8). Trends in the numbers certified were studied and reported upon by Morgan (28).

Within the past two years studies have supplied data concerning the certification requirements of teachers in special subject fields (1, 3, 12, 13, 18, 30, 36).

Three problems regarding certification were investigated. Boger (4), Givens (19), Grieder (20), and Johnson (23) studied life certification; Black (2), Bowers (5), Fulton (17), Huggett (21, 22), Ludeman (25), Morgan (27), Reed (32), *School and Society* (33), *School Management* (34), and *Texas Outlook* (35) reported on emergency certificates; while Crow (11) investigated certification by examination.

Improving Certification

A very significant contribution to the data dealing with teacher education and certification was provided by Nemec's study (29) of teachers who received initial certificates but who failed to obtain permanent certificates to teach.

The identification of inconsistencies in certain certification requirements provides the basis for improving such requirements in the future. Studies in this area were carried on by Freeman (16), McGraw (26), and Ott (31).

Suggestions as to how to improve teaching thru certification requirements were provided by Bowers (6), Cooper (9), Coyle (10), Frazier (14), Knight (24), and Wright (38).

Other Unsolved Problems

The final phase of this review pertains to areas which apparently have not been dealt with thru research investigations during the past few years. The certification procedure has been instituted in order to assure competent instruction to the children attending American public schools. Two areas of competence are implied by certification practices: the one is academic preparation, the other, professional preparation. Both are expressed in terms of course credits obtained in institutions of higher learning. Neither is specifically defined tho both need to be. What academic preparation is essential to success in teaching? What specific concepts, skills, and insights must the potential teacher possess in order to fit properly into her place in the classroom?

The question of professional competence also arises. For example, practically all states require among other things evidence of training in educational psychology. What is taught in courses in educational psychology? What is the extent of variation in course content in this field? What knowledges and skills does the inservice teacher need to have in the field of

educational psychology in order to be successful in her work? The questions raised about educational psychology can with equal force be raised about other standard professional courses such as practice teaching, methods, and the like, which are typical certification requirements. The certification requirements imply that the profession has the answers. This conclusion, however, is not substantiated in fact.

Another area in which investigation might affect certification requirements is that of the differences between the requirements for certification of elementary-school teachers and those for certification of secondary-school teachers. What, if any, are the essential differences in academic and professional training of individuals who are successful at these two teaching levels? An adequate answer to this question might readily bring about real adjustments in state certification requirements.

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CHAPTER XI

Legal Status of Teachers

MERRITT M. CHAMBERS

AMONG developments of the past three years concerning the legal status of teachers have been (a) much state legislative activity in establishing new and higher minimum-salary laws, (b) some progress in the extension and clarification of state statutes designed to afford a reasonable security of employment, accompanied by an apparent slight reduction in the volume of litigation relating thereto, and (c) gradual improvement of the statutes providing for statewide and local retirement systems. The salutary principles underlying these types of legislation are coming to be more widely understood thruout the United States.

The agency which was most prolific in producing the studies on which this review is based was the Research Division of the National Education Association, whose legal studies were conducted chiefly by Madaline K. Remmlein. Much useful nationwide surveying and thoughtful reporting was done by the United States Office of Education, whose specialist in school legislation was Ward W. Keesecker. Studies from other sources were made by various individuals, some of whom were educators or members of the legal profession, and were published in educational journals and law reviews.

In April 1947, a notable general study appeared (28) in which it was indicated that wider and more thoro understanding of the legal status of the teacher is basic to the development of wiser policies and more constructive standards leading to nationwide upgrading of the quality of teaching.

Certification, Contracts, Tenure

A teacher's certificate or license is merely a requisite of eligibility and does not entitle the holder to employment. In times of teacher shortage, such as existed during World War II and the inflationary years which followed, it was often deemed temporarily necessary to permit a lowering of the standards of qualification, either by temporary enabling legislation or by administrative regulations consonant with existing law. Where such authority for relaxation has not by this time expired by its own terms it is important that it be repealed and that the certification statutes be remodeled in accord with the best current principles.

According to the Research Division (28) nearly all of the states now grant licenses without examination to graduates of accredited teacher-training institutions within the state, but most states continue to maintain provisions whereby other qualified applicants may obtain certificates by

examination. While certification "by credential" is generally good in principle, McGraw (18) justly criticized an apparent tendency in some places to make teaching in the state practically a monopoly of the graduates of its own teacher-training institutions. Altho some states require their teachers-college students to pledge themselves to teach in the state for a specified time after graduation, it is notable that California statutes prohibit any such obligation (28).

Many considerations make interstate movement of teachers desirable, hence the statutes investing the state certification authority with a sphere of discretion in determining the equivalency of credentials from institutions in other states or licenses from other states need attention. At present most states have no definite provisions regarding certification reciprocity (28).

Public-school teachers and administrators are public employees, not officers appointed or elected for a fixed term of years (with the exception of the chief state school officer in most states), and their rights and duties are defined by contract consonant with the statutes. The distinction is important for several reasons, one of which is that it enables a teacher who is wrongfully discharged before the termination of his contract to sue on his contract and recover his salary for the full period, less any sums he may have earned in other similar employment in the meantime.

Whether such a teacher is *prima facie* wrongfully discharged unless he is previously given notice of the charges and a proper hearing has generally depended on the wording of the statutes in his state and their interpretation by the courts. A significant decision of the Minnesota supreme court in 1946 held that summary discharge of even a nontenure teacher without notice and hearing is a violation of the due process of law clause of the United States Constitution (1, 22). This conclusion exists entirely apart from questions of the dismissal of permanent teachers who have acquired indefinite tenure under state statutes which provide for it.

The Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom (24) reported that in 1947 twenty-eight states had teacher-tenure statutes, either statewide in application or applicable to specific types of school districts or to designated districts in the state. Two divisions of the National Education Association (26) reported that a considerable number of other states had the so-called continuing contract statutes of the spring notification type which provide that the teacher is automatically reemployed for another year unless he is formally notified on or before a specified date—usually from one to three months prior to the end of the current school year—that his contract will not be renewed. In a few states, notably Ohio and Illinois, such statutes have been strengthened by amendments which utilize features characteristic of full-fledged tenure laws and make the net effect of such legislation much the same as that of a statute providing for permanent tenure. These provisions are called protective continuing contract laws.

An important question regarding tenure statutes is that of whether a teacher, having once acquired permanent status, has vested rights in his position or his salary such as can not be taken away by acts of subsequent legislatures of his state by repealing or amending the statute under which he acquired the rights. Does the teacher have rights which protect him against discharge, demotion, or reduction of salary as a result of later changes in the tenure law? In an Indiana case, where the statute repeatedly used the word *contract* and emphasized the contractual relationship, the United States Supreme Court decided affirmatively that the terms of the statute bind subsequent legislatures as by contract. In a New Jersey case, however, wherein the wording of the statute did not thus stress the contractual feature and wherein the whole history of state school legislation was different, the same high tribunal held that the rights of permanent teachers must be subordinate to the power of subsequent legislatures to develop the public policy of the state (20, 28).

There have been but few state decisions on the point, but there is sufficient weight behind the theory of the New Jersey case that if a state wishes to place itself clearly within the meaning of the Indiana decision the most nearly sure way to do so is to make the wording of its tenure statute unmistakably indicate that its terms constitute a contract between the state and the individuals who acquire rights under it.

Salaries and Promotions

The legislative year 1947 saw considerable progress toward statutory elevation of minimum salaries for teachers. In the late summer, while some of the legislatures were still in session, the Research Division of the National Education Association (29) reported that sixteen states had provided increases. California established a minimum of \$2400 by constitutional amendment in late 1946. Washington and Nevada set \$2400 as a flat rate minimum. For teachers with maximum credit for experience and the M. A. degree or equivalent preparation, Indiana set \$3600, Delaware \$3800, Pennsylvania \$4000 (for first-class districts), and New York \$5325 (for "superior service" upper 10 percent of teachers in districts having a population of one million or more). There was a healthy trend toward establishing statewide minimums in which recognition is given to education, evidences of professional growth, and experience.

Morrison (19) directed attention to the statute enacted by the New York legislature which provided for promotions and salary increases on the basis of quality of service. Studies of the operation and effectiveness of this plan, as soon as experience makes possible an evaluation, will be of great interest.

Retirement

An event of this period was the enactment of a statewide joint-contributory retirement system by Idaho in 1946 (33), which action completed

the list of forty-eight states and Hawaii having either retirement systems or pension plans for teachers. In 1947, three states (Delaware, Rhode Island, and New Mexico) had only the outmoded gratuitous-pension systems. All the other jurisdictions had statewide joint-contributory retirement plans and thirty states had some variety of the reserve type, set up wholly on a reserve basis as distinguished from the pay-as-you-go types (25). Local teacher-retirement systems were operating in fifty cities throught the country. The main essentials of a good system were well recognized: (a) joint-contributory reserve, (b) provision for prior service credit, (c) teacher's contributions returnable in case of withdrawal or death before retirement, (d) provision for payment of retirement allowances according to several options, and (e) provision for disability retirement (27).

In 1946, the Research Division of the National Education Association (32) reported a trend toward more liberality in granting credit for out-of-state service and a trend toward allowing teachers who withdraw before retirement to elect to receive deferred retirement allowances on the basis of accumulated contributions at the time of withdrawal in lieu of the return of the contributions. These improvements may have been stimulated by recurrent efforts to extend the coverage of the federal Social Security Act of 1935 to include employees of governmental units and of charitable corporations.

A few state legislatures anticipated the possible extension of the federal social security system by making some enactment regarding the subject. For example, South Carolina (32) provided that in case of such an event occurring, "this state retirement plan may be revised upon a fair and equitable basis so that the beneficiaries of this Act be included in the said federal system." A complete traversing of the current retirement situation is obviously not possible in this brief review. Some interesting occurrences bearing upon the civil rights of teachers are also regretfully omitted. Study of the documents cited in the appended bibliography is recommended.

College and University Teachers

In 1947 the Kentucky Court of Appeals decided that the section of the state constitution which limited the salaries of state officers to \$5000 a year did not apply to presidents, deans, and professors at the state university and the state colleges (4). Previous efforts to reach this conclusion had met defeat both in an earlier decision of the same court and in an election which submitted a constitutional amendment to the electors in 1943.

The same Kentucky court of last resort decided in 1946 that a taxpayer could not recover for the state the sums paid as salary to the dean of the College of Engineering at the University of Kentucky during nearly three years (1941-1944) while he was in Washington as consultant in the War Department (3). The evidence was conclusive enough to satisfy the court that during the entire period in question he performed the full function of

the office of dean, with an assistant dean acting under his direction in his absence, and that in addition he "rendered extraordinary services to the university which otherwise would have required the president, or some other representative of the university, to make many and frequent trips to Washington."

In Ohio it appears that unfortunately a professor at the state university can not be a member of a city council without resigning his professorship (2). This situation arises because a statute stipulates that councilmen shall not hold any other public office or employment except that of notary public or member of the state militia.

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CONTINUED ON INSIDE FRONT COVER

CHAPTER XII

Teachers Associations, Organizations, and Unions

RUSSELL T. GREGG and ROLAND A. KOYEN

THE LAST three-year summary of research on teachers associations, organizations, and unions was reported by Corey in the June 1940 number of the REVIEW. Consequently, this chapter will cover the period since that date.

With respect to the quantity and quality of research dealing with teachers organizations, the conclusions reached by Corey are still valid. Hundreds of articles have been published, but an extremely small percent of these can be classified as research. Of those reports reviewed here, it is certain that no more than a half-dozen should be considered research studies. Even those classified as research studies go little beyond the fact-finding, statistical-report type of investigation. For the most part, the articles are expressions of opinions and point of view (33, 35) or general reports of purposes and activities apparently designed to create a favorable attitude toward the organization involved (6, 32, 40).

Education Associations and Their Membership

The number of educational associations as reported in Part IV of the *Educational Directory* (36, 38) has remained relatively stable since 1940. A comparison of the number of various types of associations for the years 1943-44 (37) and 1947-48 (38) follows: (a) national and sectional educational associations, 369 in 1943-44 and 392 in 1947-48; (b) educational boards and foundations, 39 and 33; (c) religious educational organizations, 51 and 53; (d) state educational associations, 132 and 129; (e) state library associations, 48 and 51; (f) international educational associations and foundations, 32 and 31.

Membership in the National Education Association increased from 203,429 in 1940 to 441,127 in 1948 (15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24). Of the 928,499 teachers in the United States and territories in 1940, 22 percent, according to the National Education Association (15), were members of the Association, while 48 percent of the 912,334 teachers in 1948 were members (24). The percent of teachers who were members of the National Education Association increased gradually between 1940 and 1946 and markedly since 1946. Kuenzli (23) states that membership in the American Federation of Teachers approximately doubled between the beginning of World War II and the end of 1948. Total membership of the American Federation of Teachers for 1947 was reported (1) to be approximately 42,000. Kuenzli (23) also reported that the number of American Federation of Teachers locals chartered annually varied from

thirteen in 1939-40 to eighty-six in 1946-47 and that such locals now exist in twenty-four of the twenty-five largest cities in the United States and in two-thirds of the cities of over 100,000 population.

State and Local Education Associations

One of the most comprehensive investigations reported (26) was confined to local education associations. In this study the Research Division of the National Education Association tabulated questionnaire returns from 1040 local associations. Of these, 865 were all-inclusive groups and 175 limited membership to classroom teachers. All states and territories were represented in the study. Detailed data were reported concerning (a) organizational machinery employed by the associations, (b) activities carried on, and (c) major achievements. A wide range of activities was carried on by the associations. There was an overbalance of teacher-welfare activities as compared with professional-improvement activities. Fifteen criteria were developed for evaluating local education associations.

The Research Division of the National Education Association also reported (27) an extensive investigation of all-inclusive state education associations. The report presented a national summary concerning membership, organization, staff personnel, executive secretaryship, research, publications, placement, field services, public-relations activities, and financial data as these relate to state education associations. Summaries concerning these items were also given for thirty-five states, for the District of Columbia, and for Hawaii and Puerto Rico.

A study of state and local elementary-principals associations was reported by the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association (25). Forty state associations and 198 local associations provided data. Information was reported concerning membership, annual dues, types of meetings, frequency of meetings, and other activities of the associations. State and local officers reported evaluations of their own associations. The findings were compared with a similar study conducted by the Department twenty years earlier. The comparison revealed that the groups met more frequently, that the meetings were longer and tended to give increased emphasis to the relatively more important topics of instruction and curriculum, and that more materials were published than was the case two decades ago. The conclusion reached was that, in spite of the progress made, there is still much room for improvement.

A number of state education associations have published handbooks for use by local associations. Typical are the handbooks published by the Idaho (14), New York (29), and Wisconsin (41) state associations. Each of these handbooks reported general information relating to the state association and to the activities of local associations. They put emphasis, however, on suggestions for organization and activities of the local associations.

Deficiencies of teacher organizations were discussed by a number of writers. Spaulding (34) maintained that teacher organizations were not sufficiently restrictive with regard to membership and that they were neither professional organizations nor labor unions. He stated that teachers organizations should have higher standards, higher dues, and no administrators. Cocking (2) pointed out that there was no machinery to coordinate the potential influence of teachers associations and allied groups. He proposed that representatives from various organizations meet under the chairmanship of the United States Commissioner of Education to agree upon common purposes and outline unified plans of action. An opinion poll (28) of 209 school administrators revealed that 81 percent of them believed that membership in education associations should be optional with the teachers.

Teachers Unions and Strikes

Widely divergent opinions were written concerning the advisability of teachers affiliating with teachers unions. Smith (33) and Wakeham (39) took typically strong stands against such affiliation, while Tauber (35) and Cohen (3) defended affiliation with unions. A philosophical approach to the issue was made by Hullfish (11). He emphasized that the question of affiliation with teachers unions must be answered according to whether or not they serve education and the ideals of democracy.

Three articles by Fordyce (7, 8, 9) represented a more scientific treatment of teachers unions than did other articles reviewed. He described the early beginnings of teachers unions, causes of unionization, achievements of the unions, communist influences in teachers unions and how the American Federation of Teachers dealt with them, attitudes toward strikes, and problems of the unions.

A number of articles during recent years dealt with the problem of teachers strikes. Rogge (31) and Green (10) stated the case for and against the legal right of teachers to strike. Redmond (30) cited and discussed the consequences of more than a dozen teachers strikes. Counts (5) discussed social and economic conditions which he considered to be causes of teachers strikes.

International Teacher Organizations

During the last two or three years, scores of articles have appeared discussing international education organizations, particularly Unesco. Huxley (12, 13) reported on the achievements of Unesco for 1947 and for 1948. Cook (4) reported on the Endicott, New York, meeting of the World Organization of the Teaching Profession.

To date few significant research studies have been made concerning the important problem of teachers organizations and unions. There are hun-

dreds of such groups, many of them enrolling large numbers of teachers. A number of them maintain research staffs. Yet, it is only infrequently that the interests and efforts of these staffs are directed toward investigations of their own or other teachers organizations.

Additional research studies are needed relative to the functions and programs of teachers organizations, the effectiveness of these programs in improving education and the professional status of teachers, the coordination of the efforts of teachers organizations, the attitudes of teachers and laymen toward the organizations, and the financing of teachers organizations.

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CHAPTER XIII

Welfare of the Individual Teacher

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RESEARCH in this area was not particularly extensive in the period covered by this review. Altho several informative surveys were conducted which identified certain general factors influencing teacher welfare and morale, little research was done to evaluate the contributions made by specific factors. Studies of teacher personality and mental hygiene were still primarily concerned with the effect of the teacher upon the pupil. The number of studies which attempted to investigate the extent of maladjustments in teachers by means of personality tests decreased. Discussions about the teacher were concerned more with the conditions surrounding the job than with the mental hygiene aspects of the teacher's work.

Administrative Practices Affecting the Welfare of the Teacher

The conditions prevailing within the teaching profession have important repercussions on teacher welfare. The problems of inadequate salary, tenure, and retirement funds are discussed fully elsewhere in this REVIEW. However, these "job-associated frustrations" were considered by many writers to be among the chief factors causing dissatisfaction in the teacher and contributing to his lack of security in his work. Moreover, there were other problems in the occupation itself—the pupil load, the undemocratic practices of supervisors and administrators, poor working conditions, inadequate sick-leave benefits, and too many extracurriculum demands upon the teacher's time. Community restrictions upon social life and encroachment upon academic freedom further made the teaching profession one filled with occupational hazards.

Gibbs (14), thru interviewing applicants for teaching positions, made an informal study to determine what appealed most to highly proficient teachers. She found that the teachers sought to work in places which offered professional inducements, were willing to accept them as adult citizens, gave them security—including tenure, a fair salary schedule and adequate retirement provisions—and provided suitable living conditions with adequate recreational facilities. The behavior of administrators and supervisors seemed to affect teachers' welfare. Michaelis (24) had 242 teachers thruout the United States rate a list of things which parents, pupils, and teachers did which affected teacher morale. A democratic principal who avoided favoritism and was considerate of his teachers' feelings was rated high. Goslin (15) made recommendations for what the administrator and supervisor could do to stimulate growth of the teacher.

Several surveys were made on teacher morale. The *Nation's Schools Opinion Poll* (25) made a nationwide survey of public-school administrators. Eighty-seven percent of those responding said that teacher morale had improved, while 13 percent said it had not. Factors contributing to improved morale (with percents based upon the number of respondents checking each factor) were as follows: (a) higher salaries, 90 percent; (b) establishment of definite salary schedules, 42 percent; (c) better qualified teachers, 37 percent; (d) better staff relationships, 33 percent; (e) more nearly adequate facilities and equipment, 19 percent; (f) improved physical environment, 18 percent; (g) lighter work load, 15 percent; and (h) tenure or continuing contract, 11 percent. Further public appreciation of the teacher's work was felt to have contributed to improved morale. Hand (16) made a survey of teacher morale involving 400 teachers in a Midwestern city. He designated as his high morale group slightly over one-half who said morale was high or very high. One-tenth rated morale as low or very low. When he compared the two groups he found the high morale group, in contrast to the low moral group, considered itself an essential part of the school system, was satisfied with the supervisor's treatment, was fairly free to experiment with teaching methods, did not have to spend money on equipment, felt total work load to be equitably divided, had sufficient time to prepare for teaching, and was more satisfied with the curriculum.

Threlkeld (32) surveyed the attitudes toward teaching as a profession which were held by large groups of high-school seniors, teachers, and parents in school districts near New York City. The results are presented in previous chapters of this issue.

Seyfert (27) reported a survey which was conducted by Chase of the Rural Editorial Service at the University of Chicago to find school systems staffed with satisfied and effective teachers in order to discover the characteristics of administrative, professional, and public relations which produce such teachers.

Academic Freedom

One of the ever-present issues affecting the welfare and security of the American teacher is academic freedom, particularly at the college level, where more controversial issues are discussed. The Committee on Academic Freedom and Tenure of the American Association of University Professors (2, 3) was greatly concerned with their problem. Shannon (28) in his review of academic freedom stated that statistics for 1943-1947 showed a decline in the number of new cases brought to the attention of the aforementioned Committee. Current concern, however, is that the teacher charged with subversive activities should have recourse to all the established safeguards of due process.

Social Status and Community Relations

Community restrictions imposed on teachers and their relatively poor social status in many communities seem to account for the unsatisfactory relationships between teachers and the community in many instances. Crowder (13) found that teachers too often were regarded not as members of the community, but as people to be watched and restricted, frequently at the expense of their creativity. Mead (23) and Kaplan (19), however, pointed out that the role of the teacher in the community was changing.

Because of their specialized training and their responsible position teachers should become intellectual leaders, participate in community affairs and lead social progress. Few studies, however, have been made to show to what extent such a change has been effected. Lichliter (20) did investigate the social restrictions and obligations imposed upon women teachers. Some type of church participation was expected in most of the communities sampled. Sixty-seven percent of the group was expected to participate in extracurriculum activities, usually by contract or by the advice of the administrator. One-half or more of the teachers favored some type of church participation. Any resentment expressed about community activities concerned the fact that too much participation was demanded in too many diverse activities. Concerning restrictions affecting personal habits, 55 percent of her respondents said they were forbidden to drink alcohol, 38 percent to smoke, 53 percent to date the students, 11 percent to wear certain types or styles of dresses, and 15 percent to marry while employed by the school. The source of most restriction and advice in this area was general social pressure. The war was regarded as having forced a more liberal policy. Lichliter concluded that communities could create a happy environment for the teachers by treating them as sensible human beings or they could create an unhappy environment by setting them apart as different individuals.

Physical Health

Physical health of the teacher was found to be important from the points of view of her efficiency as a teacher, her happiness as an individual, and the health of the community. Bevan (8), who reported on some of the literature dealing with teacher health from 1942 to 1946, pointed out the dangers to the health of the teacher in the school situation itself. She recommended more regular as well as more extensive physical examinations for teachers as well as broad health provisions made by public-health services and more specific measures regulating the proper sanitation of school buildings and classrooms. She particularly stressed the danger of tuberculosis in teachers. Wayland (33) reviewed the literature on teacher health and what could be done to maintain it. Some of the factors identified as affecting teacher health, economic status, and general working conditions

were (a) type of administration, (b) the number of pupils per teacher, (c) adequacy of preventive and curative medical care, (d) amount and type of sick leave, and (e) the attitude and personal health efforts of the teacher himself. He cited one study which showed that in 1941 of 1801 school systems in towns and cities of from 2500 to over 100,000 population 45 percent provided the services of a school nurse without cost to the teacher and that group hospitalization or group health insurance was offered in 37 percent of the systems. A thoro physical examination without cost was provided annually in only 6 percent of the systems and an equal percent provided examinations every three years. Only 13 percent of the systems provided advisory service to the individual teachers from the school physician. Wayland recommended that (a) thoro physical examinations and the best psychological examinations be administered before a teacher be given a position and (b) continuous consulting service should be offered by an adequately staffed school-health department.

Burnett (11) made a survey among thirty Texas schools in order to arrive at a worthwhile sick-leave plan. None of these schools deducted full pay for illness of brief duration. However, full pay was allowed for only a brief period in a large majority of the schools, with practices varying widely from school to school. Hutchins (18) stated that in 1941, 78 percent of 1736 cities allowed some sick leave with full pay. Only fifteen states had laws authorizing school officials to adopt leave plans or requiring them to allow teachers full salary while absent for a limited number of days for illness or other approved reasons. Such provisions as these were made much more extensively by urban than by rural school systems. Leaves for professional improvement, for visiting other school systems, and for attending educational meetings varied among the school systems, with a majority of the provisions being rather inadequate. Wright (35) reviewed the provisions for sick leaves in the different states. It is not surprising that most teachers, penalized financially as they are for absence, prefer to endanger their pupils health rather than take sick leave.

Emotional Health and Personality Adjustment

Much of the literature in this area was of the subjective sort, describing the characteristics of a good teacher (9, 26) or emphasizing the role of the teacher in the mental hygiene of the child (22). Research done in this area attempted to measure teachers personality by a test or series of tests, by ratings of supervisors and administrators and others, and by pupil reaction to teachers. Much emphasis was placed upon the effect of the teacher's personality upon the pupil. Anderson and Brewer (4, 5) and Anderson, Brewer, and Reed (6) found in their observations of teachers and pupils that certain behavior patterns and personality characteristics of the teacher persisted into a second year, even tho children's behavior tended to change with different teachers.

Several recent investigations of teacher personality and adjustment were concerned with the measurement of personality by personality tests. Blair (10) used the *Multiple Choice Rorschach Test* to study the extent of maladjustment among school teachers and ascertain the differences which existed between various groupings and subgroupings of teachers. His subjects were 205 experienced teachers (average age 35.6 years) and 152 prospective teachers (average age 20.6 years). Experienced teachers underlined more poor answers than did prospective teachers. The difference between the respective numbers of poor answers underlined was statistically significant. However, the validity of the *Multiple Choice Rorschach Test* has not been thoroly established. Lough (21) administered the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory* to 185 women students at a New York State teachers college. The results showed the group to be a relatively stable, normal group with a very slight tendency toward hypomania. It was felt that there might be some slight relationship between the hypomanic trend found in these students and the large incidence of manic-depressive psychoses found among teachers who have been hospitalized.

Three significant studies of the personality traits and adjustments of teachers were made. Witty (34) sought to analyze the traits of the effective teacher by having pupils write a composition for a radio contest on the topic, "The Teacher Who Has Helped Me Most." Twelve thousand letters were analyzed. The twelve traits most frequently mentioned were (a) cooperative democratic attitude, (b) kindness and consideration for the individual, (c) patience, (d) wide interests, (e) personal appearance and pleasing manner, (f) fairness and impartiality, (g) sense of humor, (h) good disposition and consistent behavior, (i) interest in pupils problems, (j) flexibility, (k) use of recognition and praise, and (l) unusual proficiency in teaching a particular subject.

Barker (7) studied the relation of personality adjustments of teachers to efficiency in teaching, using case studies of sixty teachers as his source of material. Data were collected regarding life adjustments (family relationships, living arrangements, health, finances, friends, sex, and religion) and work adjustments (pupils, administrators, school environment, emotional situations, and professional growth). Efficiency in teaching as judged by the school administrator in the system correlated more highly with work adjustments (.36 to .58) than it did with life adjustments (.08 to .35). Pupil relationships had the highest correlation (.58) with teaching efficiency. Cook and Leeds (12) developed an inventory for measuring the teaching personality, which they defined as the ability to establish harmonious relationships with pupils and those characteristics of teachers behavior related to the emotional response of the pupils. The attitude of the individual teachers toward the pupils was significantly related to the pupils attitudes toward the teacher. Both sets of attitudes could be meas-

ured with a reliability approaching .90 and the relationship between these was represented by a correlation of .46.

Several reviews of mental hygiene were made. Alilunas (1) reviewed studies made in this area and then made suggestions for needed research. He stated that there was little inquiry as to the teacher's personality qualities before beginning teaching or what teaching did to his personality. No definite conclusions could be drawn as to the nature and extent of teacher illness. Altho teaching might attract potentially neurotic individuals, it was essential to know how much could be attributed to their lives as teachers. He stressed the point that research was needed to see how specific conditions in teaching affected the teacher's personality and what could be done to modify the school environment for the benefit of the teacher. Hartmann (17) studied the effects of teaching on teachers by seeing if 110 experienced teachers recognized in their own conduct behavior attributable to teaching. They were given a questionnaire which asked them to compare themselves as they once were with what they were at present on a list of twenty-six behavior symptoms. Two-thirds of the teachers felt that most of the changes noticeable were primarily on the side of improvement and one-sixth felt that they had changed for the worse. While fewer teachers reported losses, those who did felt more intensely about them than those who reported gains. The more mature and experienced teachers appeared to be more aware of losses than the less experienced teachers.

Snyder (30) also summarized much of the literature which has been written since 1936 on the mental hygiene of teachers, emphasizing the studies made on the origin of teacher maladjustment. More recently Snyder (29) reviewed the scientific investigations which threw light on the question of emotional maladjustment of the teacher and its effect upon students. He concluded that the studies made showed that teachers have emotional problems, tho in no greater proportion than exists in the general population. There seemed to be two areas which caused teacher maladjustment: (a) job-associated frustrations and (b) personal, emotional problems. Opinion in the studies was divided as to whether the mental hygiene of the teacher affected her teaching ability. The majority of studies made showed that in many cases teachers did not recognize the problem child. Moreover, children disliked teacher traits which indicated personal emotional maladjustments and preferred teachers who had an unbiased, cheerful attitude. The studies show that the teachers personal adjustment has a definite effect upon the student.

Symonds (31) published a summary of thirteen studies of teacher personality. Altho he stressed the importance of teacher personality in its effect on the pupils, he was interested in the kinds of personality which made the good teacher. While he found no one pattern of personality which made the best teacher, he proposed the following six personality factors as being essential to the good teacher: (a) she should like her work, (b)

have reasonable security, (c) identify herself with the children, (d) be emotionally stable, (e) be free from anxiety, and (f) not be too self-centered or selfish. He discussed teacher needs and the problems they face which are considered to be personal rather than professional. He emphasized that teacher adjustment is primarily a problem of selection of the better adjusted person. He proposed that teacher personality be assessed by means of procedures utilized in the Office of Strategic Services during the last war and that supervisors be more therapeutic in their approach to teacher problems. He claimed that courses in mental hygiene have proved their value in aiding teacher adjustment.

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SUPPLEMENTARY DIRECTORY

(The latest complete membership list was published in the December 1948 issue of the *Review*. The following list indicates new members since that date.)

New Active Members

- Angell, George W.**, Associate Professor of Education, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan.
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- Stout, Minard W.**, Associate Professor and Principal, University High School, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
- Wilkins, Theresa Birch**, Research Assistant, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.

New Associate Members

- Chadwick, Raymond D.**, Dean, Gogebic Junior College, Ironwood, Michigan.
- Clifford, Paul I.**, Director of Educational Research, School of Education, Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia.
- Collings, Mary L.**, Home Economist, Division of Field Studies and Training, Extension Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D. C.

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- Mackenzie, Donald M.**, Dean, Blackburn College, Carlinville, Illinois.
- Martyn, Kenneth A.**, Lincoln School, Sunnyside, Washington.
- Murdoch, Bernard C.**, Research Associate, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.
- St. Lawrence, Francis James**, Graduate Student, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27, New York.

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